The Book of Knowledge ver 1.3



Proprietary to General Electric Company

The Book of Knowledge

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Six Sigma Quality Overview



GE's Quality goals

What is Six Sigma?

What is Design for Six Sigma (DFSS)

Six Sigma and DFSS successes

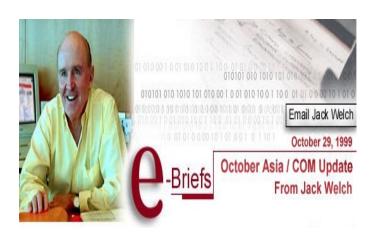
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Focus on the Customer

Going Forward with Six Sigma

Quality Challenges in 2000+

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Six Sigma and the Customer -Despite real progress, our focus on the customer must intensify. E-business, which is all about the customer, will help. But we have to make customer satisfaction a GE value and reward those who demonstrate this value in the same reward way we boundaryless behavior.

Focus

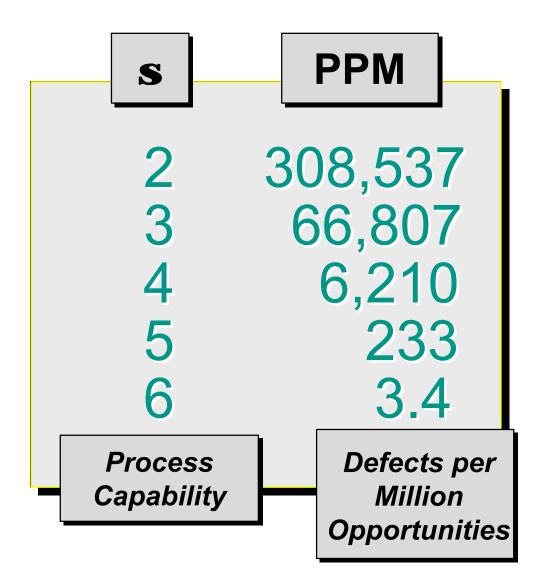


Enabling e-Business

As always ... incremental moves won't get you there!



Striving Towards Six Sigma

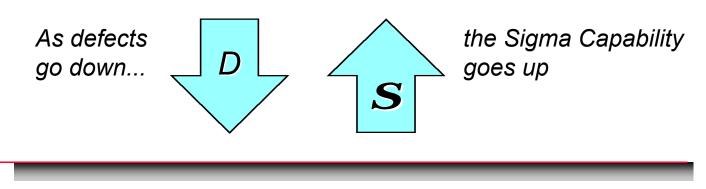




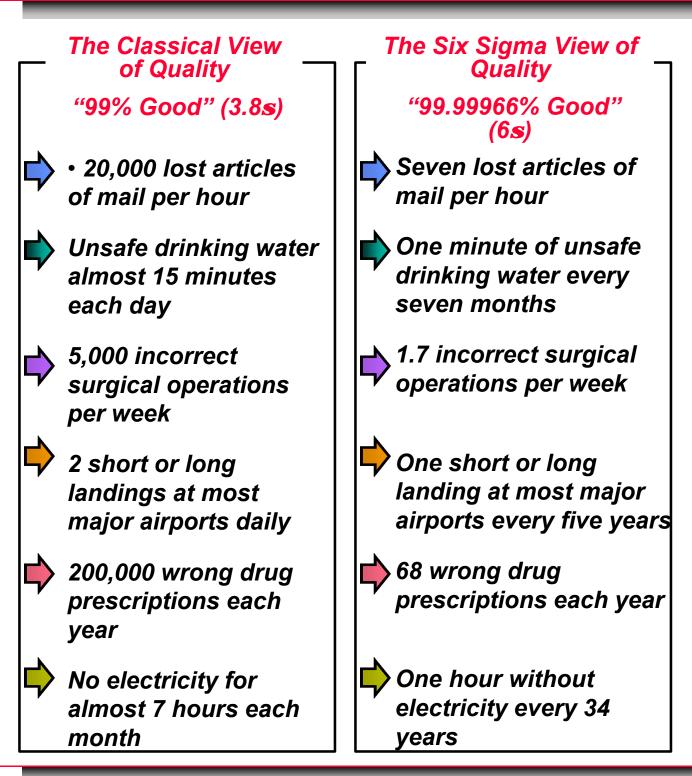
Two Meanings of "Sigma"

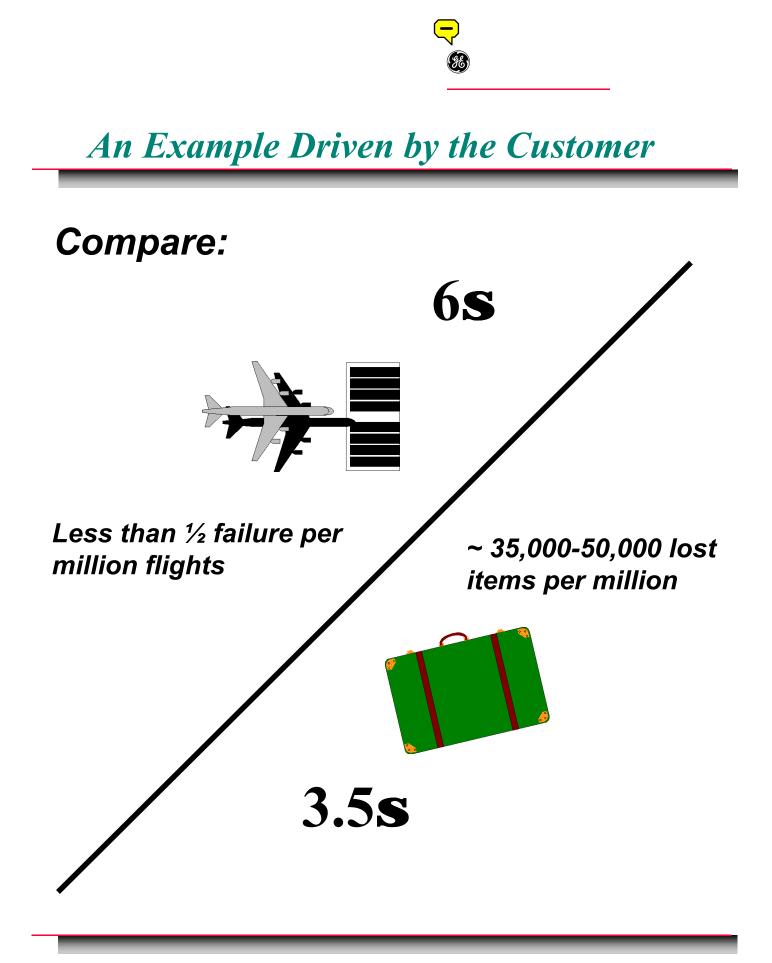


- The term "sigma" is used to designate the distribution or spread about the mean (average) of any process or procedure.
- For a business or manufacturing process, the sigma capability (z-value) is a metric that indicates how well that process is performing. The higher the sigma capability, the better. Sigma capability measures the capability of the process to perform defect-free work. A defect is anything that results in customer dissatisfaction.











 Although GE's quality levels were equal to or better than those of its competitors, in late 1995

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GE set a stretch goal to reach 6s quality by 2000

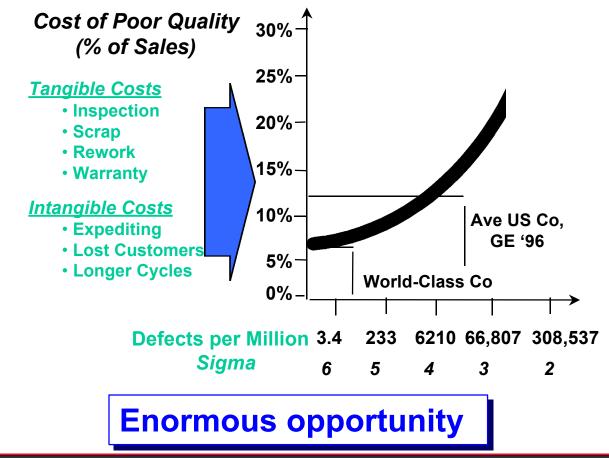
- GE 1996: 3¹/₂s
 - 35,000 defects per million opportunities
 - 96.5% good results
- GE goal: 6s
 - 3.4 defects per million opportunities
 - 99.9997% good results nearly flawless performance
- To reach goal, must reduce defect rate by factor of 10,000!

Enormous challenge

Why Does GE Need a Quality Initiative?

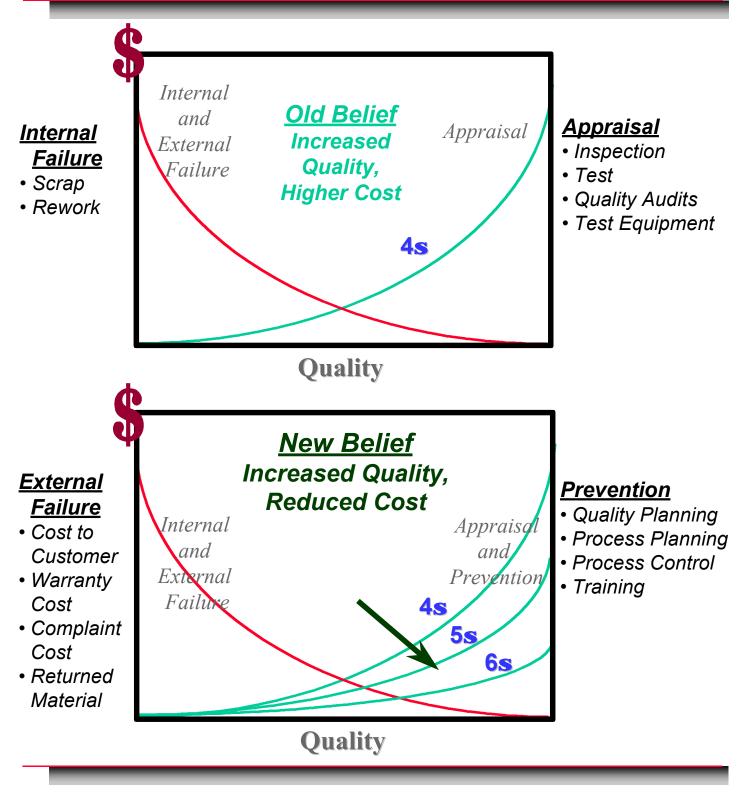
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- Meet customer expectations for higher quality
- Provide a competitive differentiator in the market
- Build greater pride and satisfaction in the GE team
- Drive other key goals: productivity and growth





Cost of Quality—A Change in Mindset



Achieving GE's Quality Goal: Six Sigma

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- Quantitative, data-driven "DMAIC" methodology - <u>D</u>efine, <u>Measure</u>, <u>Analyze</u>, <u>Improve</u>, <u>Control</u> - based on statistics, process understanding and process control
- Developed by Motorola; used successfully by TI, AlliedSignal, ...
- Internal focus: *improve existing processes* manufacturing, business transactions, ...
- Uses trained teams
 - Champions: business leaders, provide resources and support implementation
 - Master Black Belts: experts and culturechangers, train and mentor Black Belts/Green Belts
 - Black Belts: lead Six Sigma project teams
 - Green Belts: carry out Six Sigma projects related to their jobs

Driver for cost savings

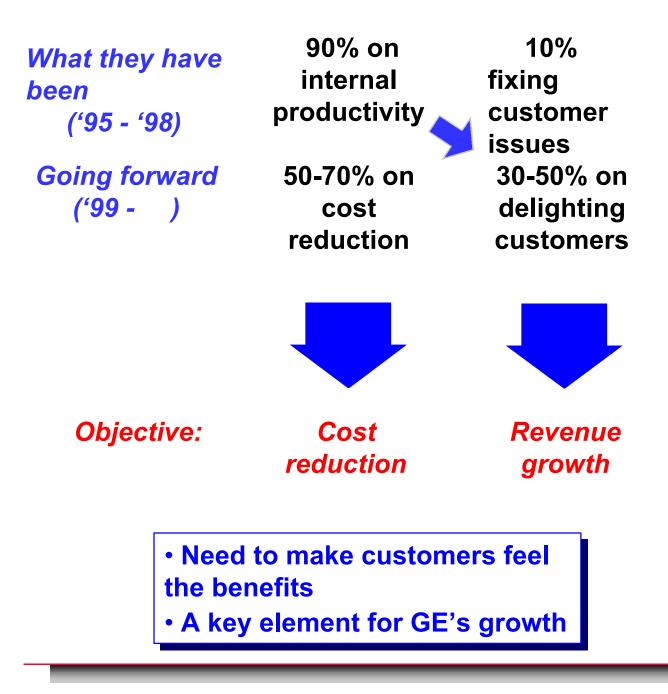
Definitions

CTQ	Critical-to-Quality attribute, An attribute important to the customer - A "Y" Response
Opportunity	Any measurable event that provides a chance of not meeting specification limits of a CTQ
Defect	Anything that results in customer dissatisfaction. Anything that results in a non-conformance.
DPMO	Defects Per Million Opportunities
 Sigma Capability (z-value) 	The probability of defect, a measure of process capability, measured in units of standard deviations
■ [¬] MBB	Master Black Belt - A Full-Time Teacher and Mentor of Black Belts.
■ BB	Black Belt - Full-Time, Trained Resource who Completes 5-10 Projects to Reduce Defects
■ĞB	Green Belt - Trained Resource who Completes 2 Projects to Reduce Defects

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Who Gets the Benefits of Six Sigma? The View at the End of '98

To Shareholders To Customers

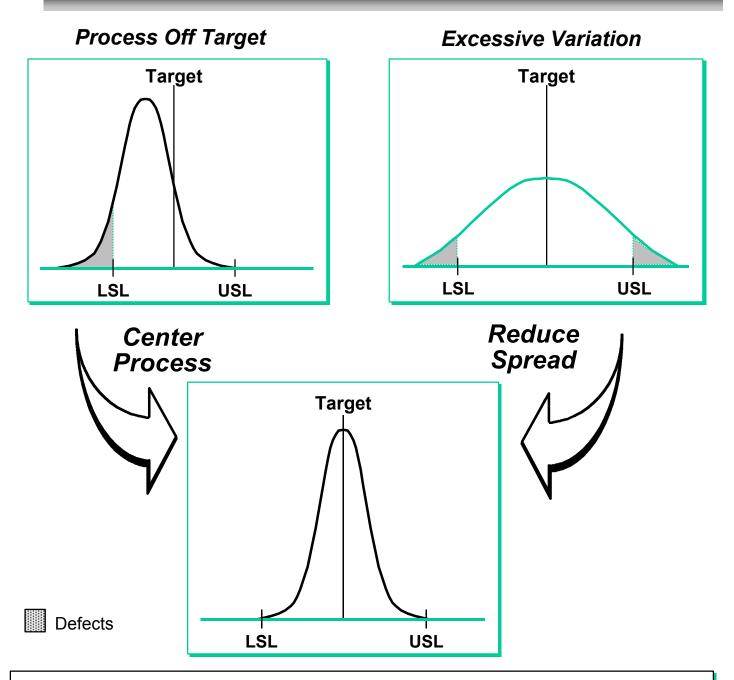




- DFSS-based new products
- Making customers successful
 - Customer-centric metrics
 - GE's fulfillment process
 - Six Sigma with the customer
- e-business

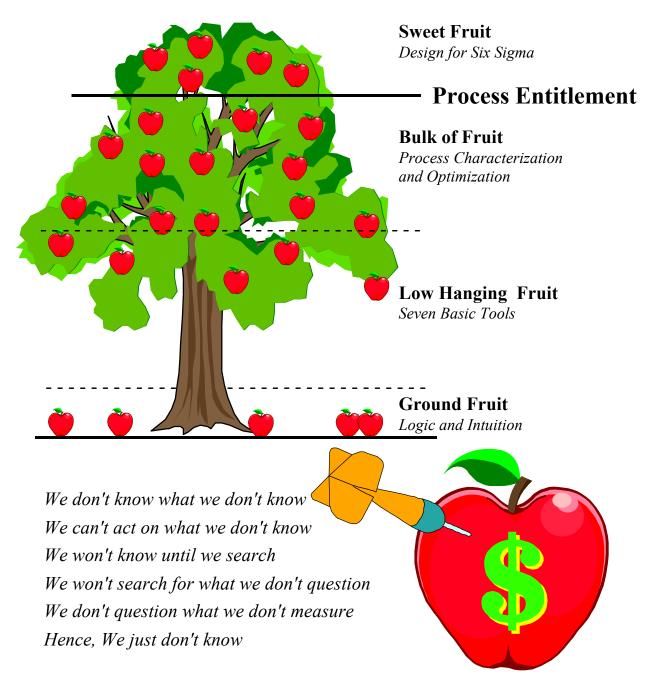


The Statistical Objective of Six Sigma



Reduce Variation & Center Process—Customers feel the variation more than the mean

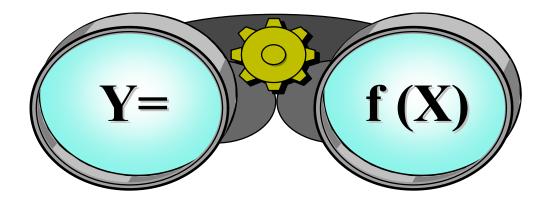
Harvesting the Fruit of Six Sigma



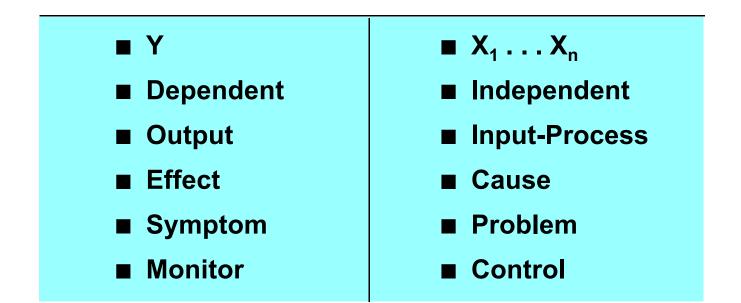
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The Focus of Six Sigma



To get results, should we focus our behavior on the Y or X?



Historically the Y, ... with Six Sigma the Xs

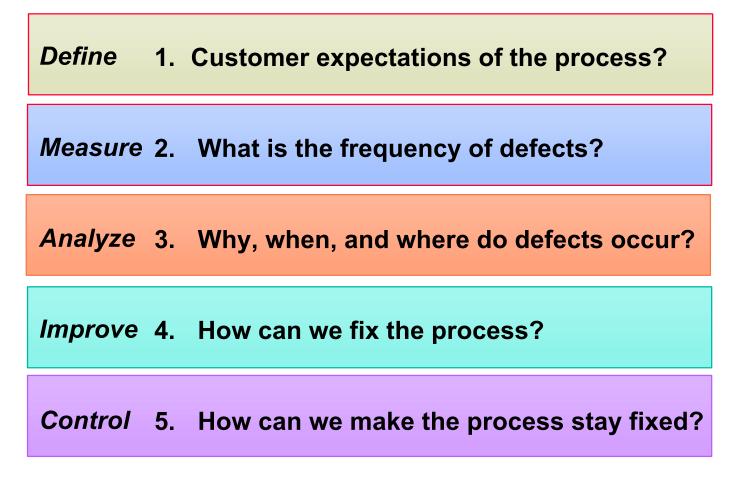
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D-M-A-I-C

For Each Product or Process CTQ – Define, Measure, Analyze, Improve, & Control

$$Y = f(X)$$



GE Design for Six Sigma (DFSS): Product Quality Methodology

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<u>Define</u>	Step 1. Identify Product/Process Performance and Reliability CTQ's and Set Quality Goals.	
<u>Measure</u>	Step 2. Perform CTQ flowdown to subsystems and components.	
	Step 3. Measurement System Analysis / Capability.	
<u>Analyze</u>	Step 4. Develop Conceptual Designs (Benchmarking, Tradeoff Analysis). Step 5. Statistical Analysis of any relevant data to assess capability of conceptual designs.	
	Step 6. Build Scorecard with initial product/process performance and reliability estimates.	
	Step 7. Develop Risk Assessment.	
<u>Design</u>	Step 8. Generate and Verify system & subsystem models, allocations and transfer functions.	
	Step 9. Capability Flow Up for all subsystems and gap identification	
	- low Zst	
	- Lack of Transfer function	
	- Unknown process capability.	
Optimize	Ze Step 10. Optimize Design	
	- statistical analysis of variance drivers	
	- robustness	
	- error proofing.	
	Step 11. Generate purchasing and manufacturing specifications and verify measurement system on X's.	
<u>Verify</u>	Step 12. Statistically confirm that product process matches predictions.	
	Step 13. Develop manufacturing and supplier control plans.	
	Step 14. Document and transition.	

Design for Six Sigma - DFSS Changing the Game for GE

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Create products that have 6s Quality "designed in":

- Wow our customers with 6s performance on their CTQs
- Have 6s reliability
- Have 6s manufacturability
- Have high performance/cost ratios
- Outside-In: Focus on meeting customer's CTQs
- Insight through variance: Statistical design to reduce performance variability

Some GE DFSS Products

2000 or later New Designs 1997 Performix[™] X-ray Tube, Innova[™] 2000 CV Digital X-Ray, GEMS GEMS Senographe^â 2000D Mammo 1998 **Digital X-Ray, GEMS** LightSpeed[™] CT, GEMS Small Motor products, Launcelot[™] Breaker, GEIndS GEIndS 119 mm GEHI Dishwasher Motor, **Ultem 1285 Tupperware GEIndS** material, GEP Arctica[™] SxS Refrigerator GEA Spectra[™] Gas Range, GEA Thermo[™] Electric Range, GEA 1999 Ecolux[™] Low-Hg Fluorescent Spectra[™] Electric Range, Lamp, GEL GEA Locomotive Emissions System, Advantium[™] Speed Oven, GETS GEA Dense Pack Steam Turbine Triton Dishwasher, GEA Upgrade, GEPS ConstantColor[™] Ceramic FB Gas Turbine, GEPS Metal Halide H Gas Turbine, GEPS Lamps, GEL CF34-80/E Engine, GEAE T5 Fluorescent Lamp, GEL CFM56-E5 ("Tech56") Engine, Signa OpenSpeed[™] MR, GEAE GEMS GE90-115B Engine, GEAE OQ 1050C Lexan, GEP Locomotive Upgrades & Services, GETS

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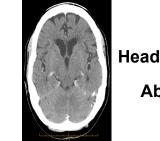
LightSpeedTM CT Scanner

<u>GEs First DFSS System ('98):</u> Full Use of Six Sigma/DFSS Tools

- Key customer CTQs identified
 - Image quality
 - Speed
 - Software reliability
 - Patient comfort
- Disciplined systems approach: 90 system CTQs
- 33 Six Sigma (DMAIC) or DFSS projects
- Part CTQs verified before systems integration



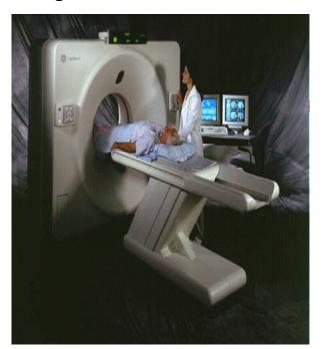
- World's first 16-row CT detector
- Multi-slice data acquisition
- 64-bit RISC computer architecture



Abdomen



<u>Results</u>



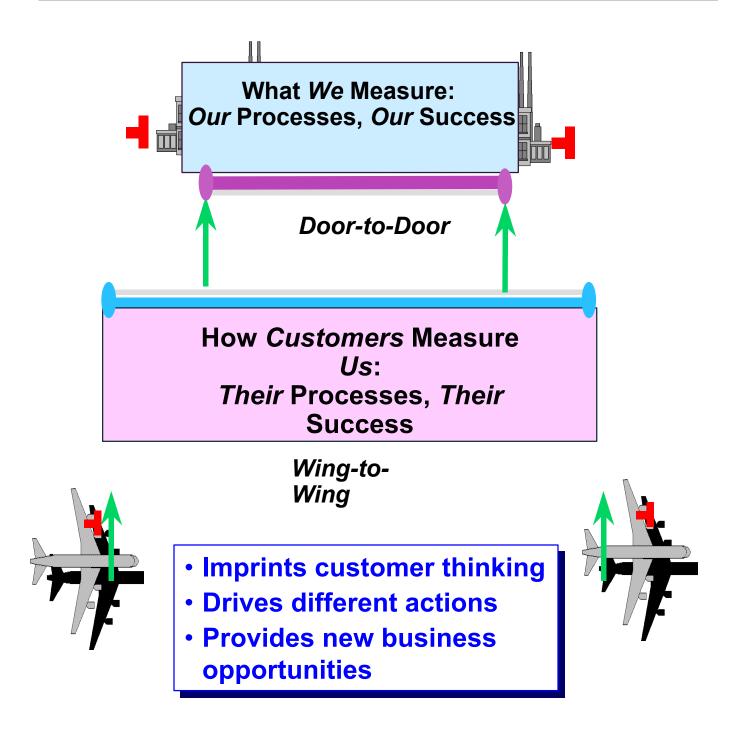
- Better image quality
 - Earlier, more reliable diagnoses
 - New applications: vascular imaging, pulmonary embolism , multi-phase liver studies, ...
- Much faster scanning:
 - Head: from 1 min to 19 sec (9 million/yr)
 - Chest/abdomen: from 3 min to 17 sec (4 million/yr)
- Clinical productivity up 50%
- 10x improvement in software reliability
- Patient comfort improved shorter exam time
- Development time shortened by 2 years
- High market share; significant margin increase

"Biggest breakthrough in CT in a decade," Gary Glazer, Stanford

Course Overview

Customer-Centric Metrics: Making Customers Successful

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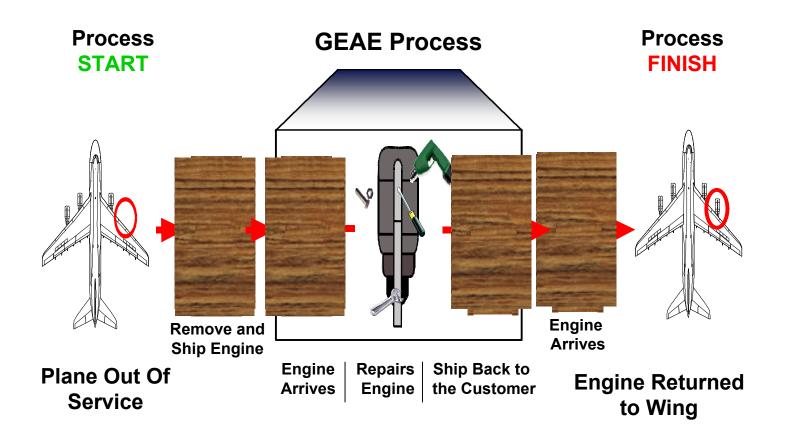


Case Study: GE Aircraft Engines

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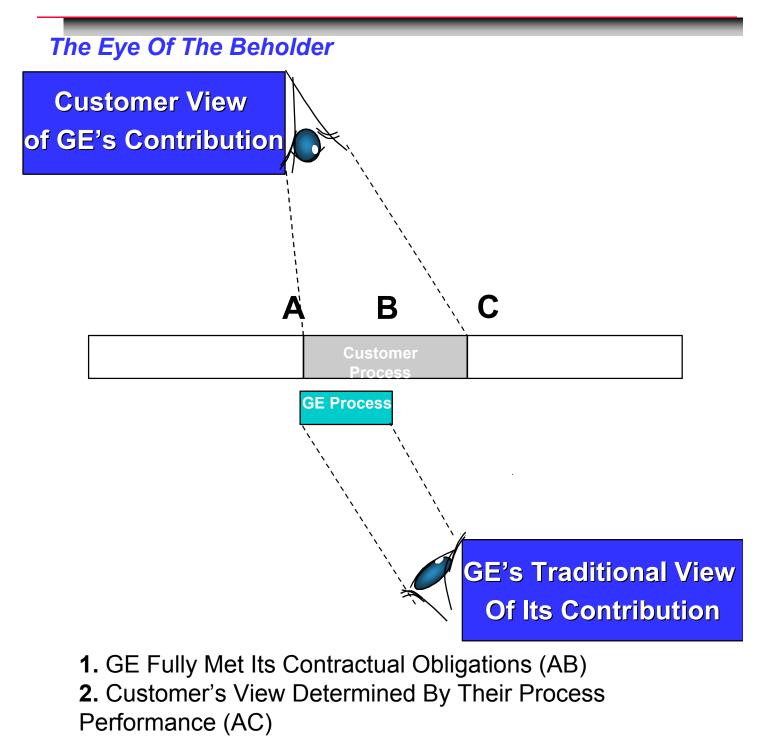
Did AE Have A Customer-Focused View?

Customer Process:





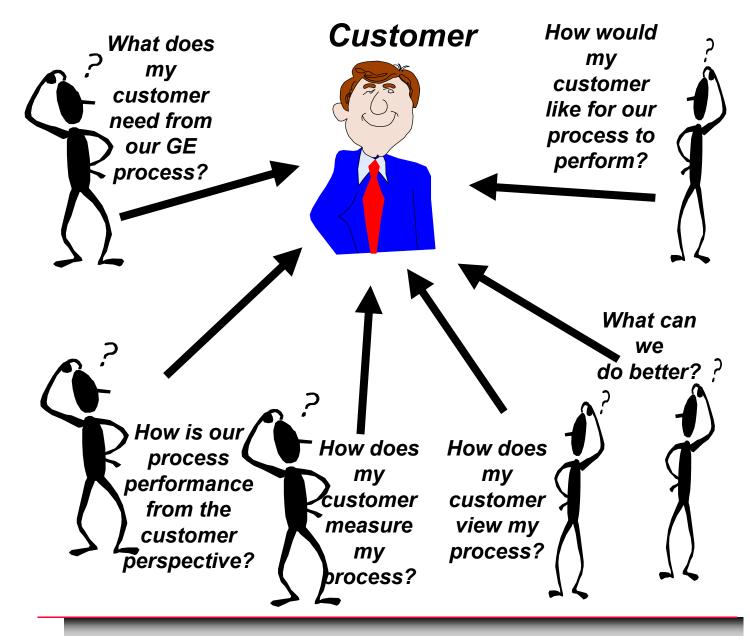
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Design For Customer Impact SM (DFCI)

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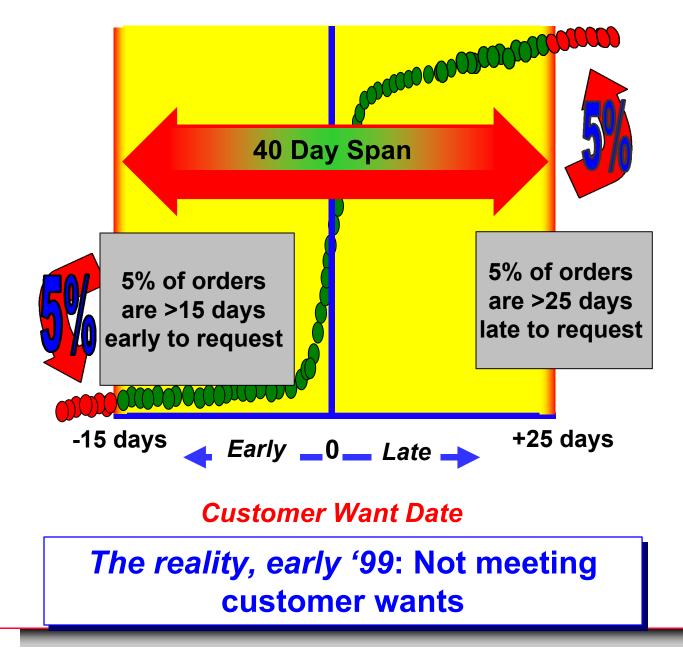
The focus for 6*s* quality is characterized by a continuous and thorough understanding of our customer. We need to ensure our customers feel and see the benefits of 6*s* quality.



Redesigning the Fulfillment Process

Give customers what they want, <u>when they</u> <u>want it</u>

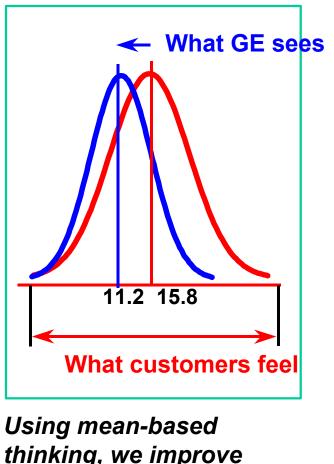
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Insight Through Variance

Delivery cycle time (days)		
Baseline	Improved?	
12	27	
24	7	
13	15	
7	4	
16	18	
8	6	
20	23	
25	6	
14	2	
10	24	
11	2	
30	6	
16	5	
Mean 15.8	11.2	
Std Dev7.0	─● 9.0	

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- thinking, we improve average performance by 29%, and break out the champagne ...
- But our customer only feels the variance and cancels the next order!

Customers feel variance, not the mean

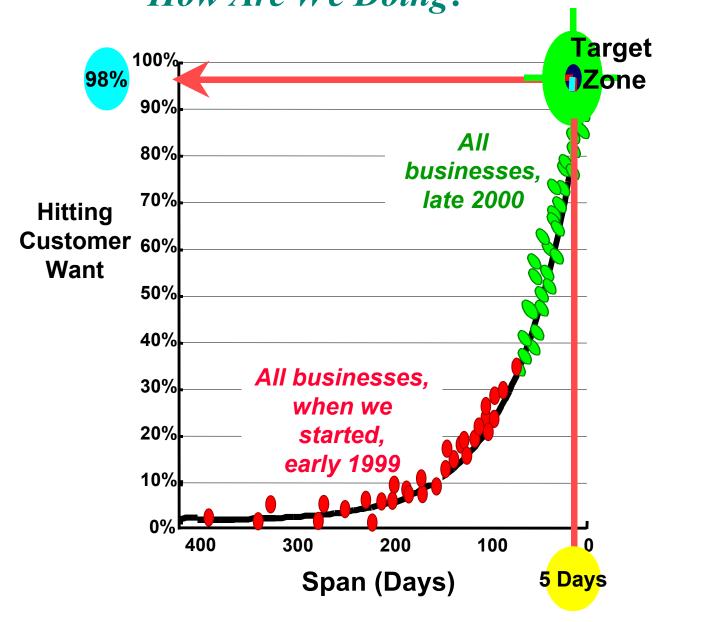


- Goals:
 - Median delivery at or before customer request (i.e., < 0)
 - 5 day spans (or less) on all major product deliveries
- Use Six Sigma and DFSS
 - Map the order-to-delivery process
 - Analyze the data to find root causes of misses
 - Understand underlying GE behaviors which lead to misses
 - Redesign the process to eliminate variance

Most tangible 6s accomplishment for our customers

Redesigning the Fulfillment Process How Are We Doing?

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Huge progress ... 5x more customers get their want!

Six Sigma and the Customer

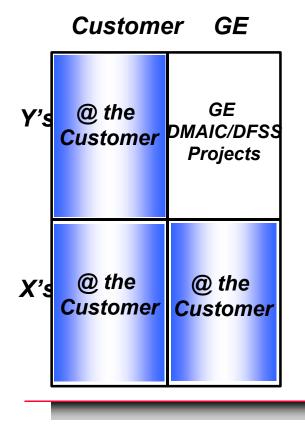
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Six Sigma @ the Customer

What?

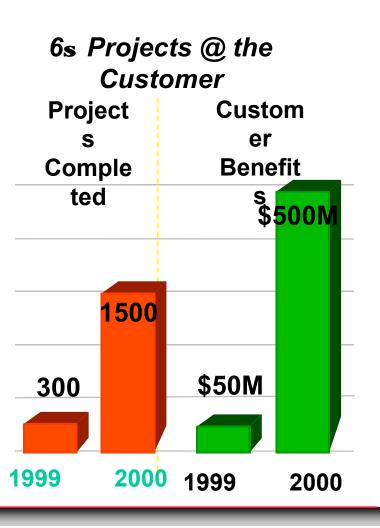
- Projects done by
 - GE BB/GBs or
 - Customer BB/GBs, trained or mentored by GE BB/GBs
- Address customer Y's
- Address customer or GE X's



Why?

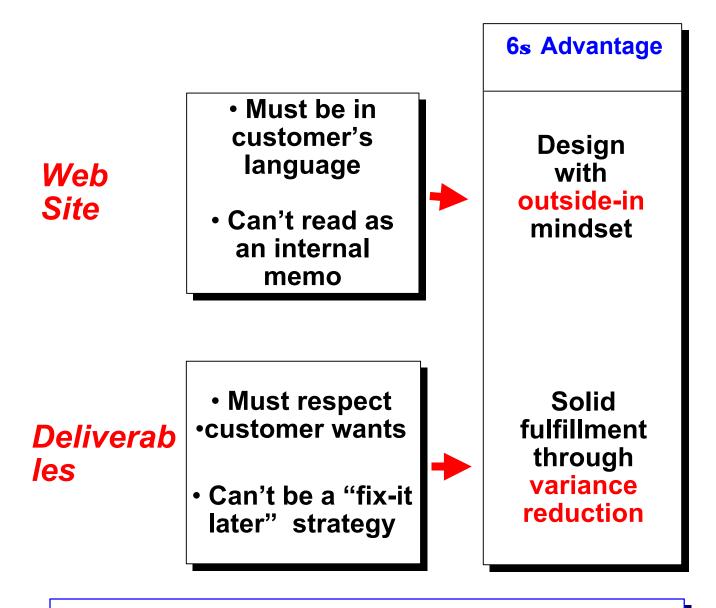
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- Build key customer relationships
- Grow share on GE sales
- Identify new opportunities



Six Sigma: Enabling e-Business

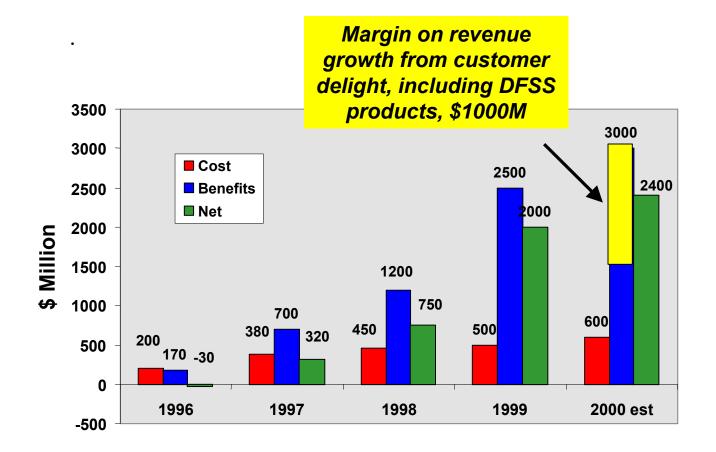
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Six Sigma: A competitive differentiator in e-business!

Six Sigma Financial Benefits, 2000

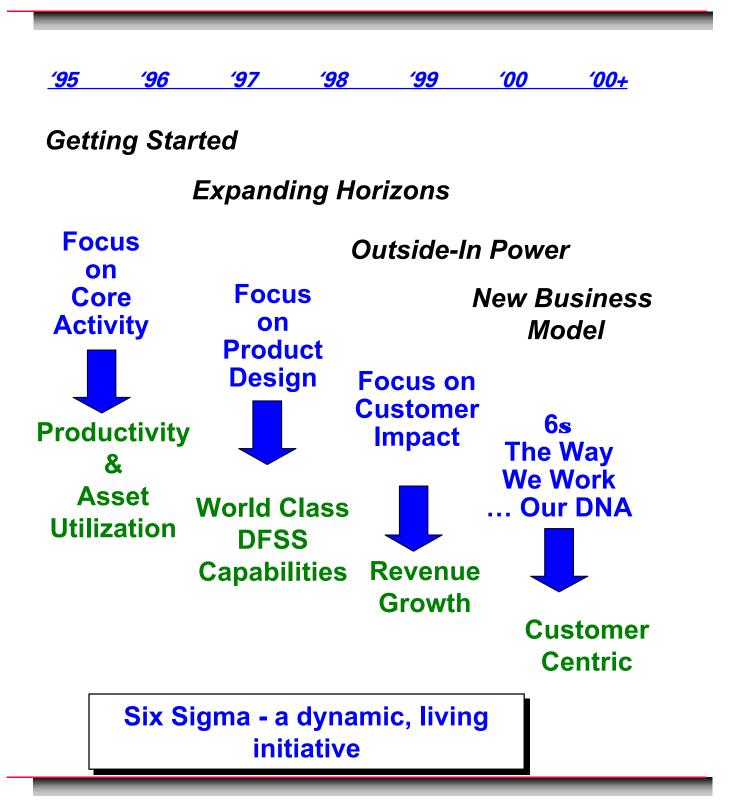
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Now getting significant benefits from customer delight, including DFSS

The Changing Focus of Six Sigma

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Summary & "Take-Aways"

Six Sigma: From... tools to improve Quality

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To... business Game Changer

- Cost reduction from productivity
- Knowing what matters to customer
- Growth from DFSS products and customer satisfaction
- Fulfillment for e-business
- A new leadership paradigm
- And ... record financial returns

"This is the most important initiative this Company has ever undertaken. (It) will fundamentally change our Company forever. John F. Welch, Jr. Letter to GE Officers, May 18, 1996

Take Aways—Course Overview

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Six Sigma focuses on:

- the customer critical to quality characteristics
- data driven improvements
- the inputs (Xs) of the process
- reducing or eliminating defects
- reducing variation
- increasing process capability
- To efficiently drive improvements, the focus must be on the inputs (Xs) to the process.
- The word "sigma" is used in two ways, to describe capability and to describe variation.
- As DPMO goes down, process capability goes up.

- Discuss the steps of the 12 Step Process: Define, Measure, Analyze, Improve, & Control
- Recognize how statistics can be applied to the problem solving process
- Illustrate the problem solving flow
 - Practical Problem => Statistical Problem => Statistical Solution => Practical Solution

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- Learn how to apply the Six Sigma tools and methodology to your project
 - Process Mapping
 - Fishbone
 - FMEA
 - Gage R&R
 - Hypothesis Testing

- Design of Experiments
- Mistake Proofing
- Control Charts

Understand process capability and its impact on quality



The 12 Step Process

Step	Description	Focus	Tools	SSQC Deliverables		
Define A B C	Identify Project CTQs Develop Team Charter Define Process Map			Project CTQs (1) Approved Charter (2) High Level Process Map (3)		
Measur		V	Quetemor OFD FMEA	$D_{roio at } V(A)$		
1	Select CTQ Characteristics	Y	Customer, QFD, FMEA	Project Y (4)		
2	Define Performance Standards	Y	Customer, Blueprints	Performance Standard for Project Y (5)		
3	Measurement System Analysis	Y	Continuous Gage R&R, Test/Retest, Attribute R&R	Data Collection Plan & MSA (6), Data for Project Y (7)		
Analyze)					
4	Establish Process Capability	Y	Capability Indices	Process Capability for Project Y (8)		
5	Define Performance Objectives	Y	Team, Benchmarking	Improvement Goal for Project Y (9)		
6	Identify Variation Sources	Х	Process Analysis, Graphical Analysis, Hypothesis Tests	Prioritized List of all Xs (10)		
Improve						
7 8	Screen Potential Causes Discover Variable	X X	DOE-Screening	List of Vital Few Xs (11)		
0	Relationships	^	Factorial Designs	Proposed Solution (13)		
9	Establish Operating Tolerances	Υ, Χ	Simulation	Piloted Solution (14)		
Control						
10	Define & Validate Measurement System on X's in Actual Application	Υ, Χ	Continuous Gage R&R, Test/Retest, Attribute R&R	MSA		
11	Determine Process Capability	Υ, Χ	Capability Indices	Process Capability Y, X (15)		
12	Implement Process Control	Х	Control Charts, Mistake Proof, FMEA	Sustained Solution (15), Documentation (16),		

Define Objectives

To identify the process or product for improvement.

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- Explain and show examples of VOC tools and VOC data techniques.
- To identify customers and translate the customer needs into CTQs.
- To develop a team charter.
 - Problem/goal statement, project scope, business case, team roles, and milestones
- To develop a high-level process map for the most significant four to five steps of the process.
- To obtain formal project approval.

Define - Beginning With an Idea



- Who's the customer?
- What does he/she think is critical to quality?
- Who speaks for the customer?
- What's the business strategy?
- Who in the business holds a stake in this?
- Who can help define the issues?
- What are the processes involved?

A Great Project Should...

- Be clearly bound with defined goals
 If it looks too big, it is
- Be aligned with critical business issues and initiatives
 - It enables full support of business
- Be felt by the customer
 - There should be a significant impact
- Work with other projects for combined effect
 - Global or local "Beta Themes"
- Show improvement that is locally actionable
 - Difficult to manage improvements in Schenectady from the field

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Relate to your day job

Sources of Project Ideas

Quality Function Deployment (QFD)

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- Customer dashboards
- Surveys and scorecards
- Active beta themes
- Other projects available for leverage
- Brainstorming
- Analysis of critical processes
- Six Sigma Quality Project Tracking Database
- Discussions with customer
- Financial analysis
- Internal problems

Project Selection

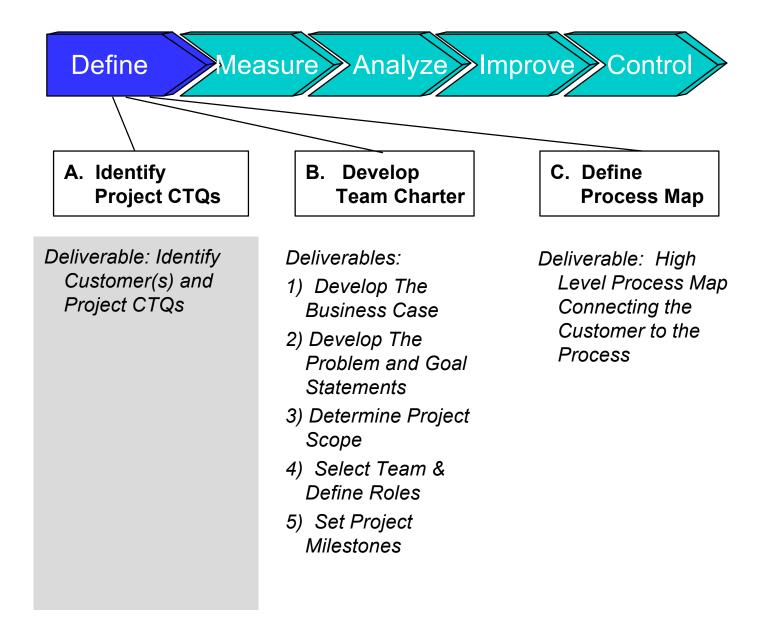
- Success Factors
 - *Project scope is manageable*
 - Project has identifiable defect
 - Project has identifiable impact
 - Adequate buy-in from key stakeholders
- To be successful ¼
 - Set up project scope charter and have it reviewed

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- *Measure where defects occur in the process*
- Assess and quantify potential impact up-front
- Perform stakeholder analysis
- Common Pitfalls
 - Resourcing of project is inadequate
 - Duplicating another project
 - Losing project momentum
 - Picking the easy X, not the critical X
- Avoiding Pitfalls ¼
 - Identify and get committed resources up-front
 - Research database and translate where possible
 - Set up milestones and communications plan

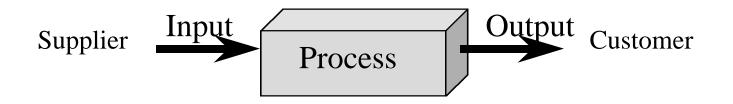
Optimize on the Success Factors to Maximize 6 Sigma Project Benefits







Who Is the Customer?



- Customer Whoever receives the output of your process.
 - Internal Customer Vs. External Customer
- Output The material or data that results from the operation of a process.
- Process The activities you must perform to satisfy your customer's requirements.
- Input The material or data that a process does something to or with.
- **Supplier** Whoever provides the input to your process.

What is critical to the quality of the process?according to your customer!



Sources of Existing Customer Data

- Business Goals
- Customer Surveys
- Complaints
- Benchmarking Data
- Executive Level Discussions
- Job Specific Discussions
- Market Strategies
- Scorecards & Dashboards
- Focus Groups

If we can measure it, we can develop strategies to meet customer needs ..

Voice of the Customer (VOC)

<u>Definition</u>: What is critical to the quality of the process

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According to your customer !

A key method to do this: VOC tools The next section will focus on these tools and VOC data.

<u>3 Key VOC tools:</u>

- Surveys
- Focus Groups
- Interviews



Research Method Pros / Cons

		•
	Pros:	Cons:
Surveys	 Lower Cost approach Phone response rate 70- 90% Mail surveys require least amount of trained resources for execution Can produce faster results 	 Mail surveyscan get incomplete results, skipped questions, unclear understanding Mail surveys20-30% response rate Phone surveys interviewer has influential role, can lead interviewee
	Pros:	Cons:
Focus Groups	 Group interaction generates information More in-depth responses Excellent for getting CTQ definitions Can cover more complex questions or qualitative data 	 Learning's only apply to those askeddifficult to generalize Data collected typically qualitative vs. quantitative Can generate too much anecdotal information
	Pros:	Cons:
	Can tackle complex	Long cycle time to
Interviews	 can tackle complex questions and a wide range of information Allows use of visual aids Good choice when people won't respond willingly and/or accurately by phone/mail 	 Long cycle time to complete Requires trained, experienced interviewers



Customer Information Issues

Real Needs vs. Stated Needs

Xerox: Focus On Copiers Or Documents?

Perceived Needs

A Hershey Bar or Godiva Chocolates?

Intended vs. Actual Usage

Is A Screwdriver Also A Hammer?

Internal Customers

Turf Wars And "Not Invented Here"

Effectiveness vs. Efficiency Needs

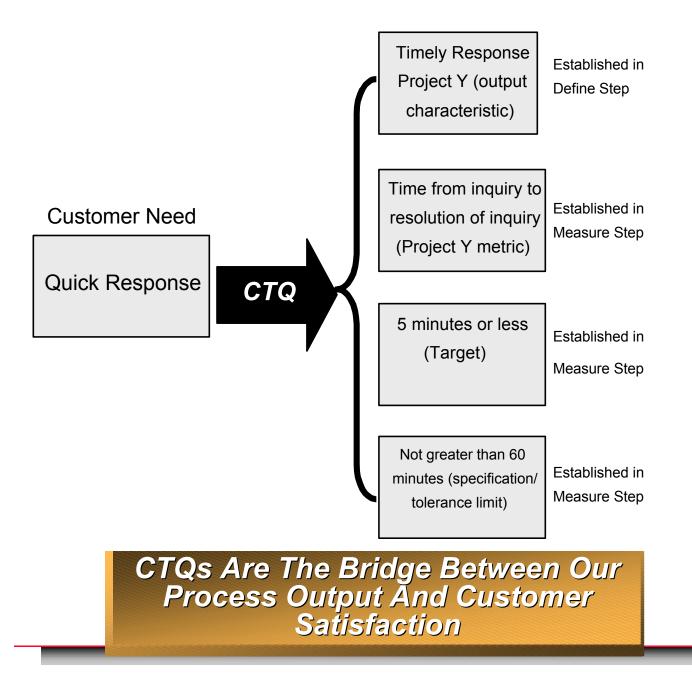
"You Want It Right Or You Want It Fast?"

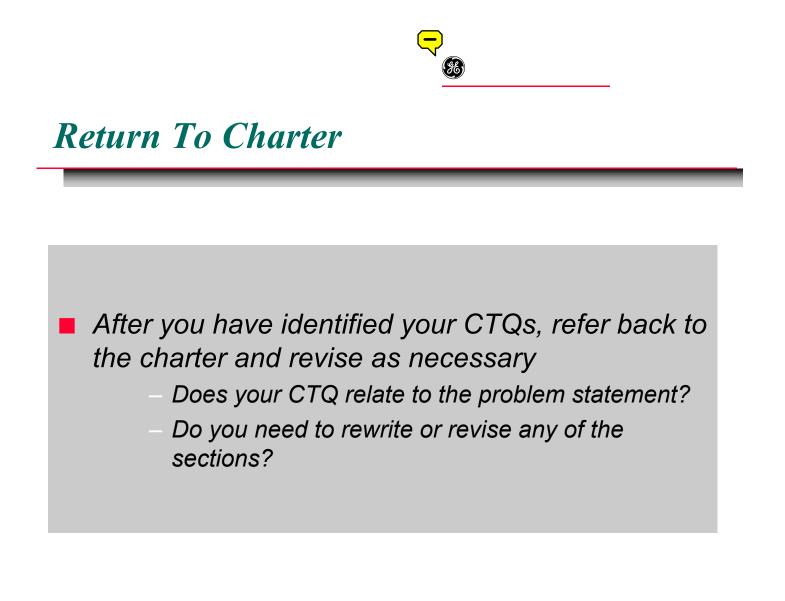


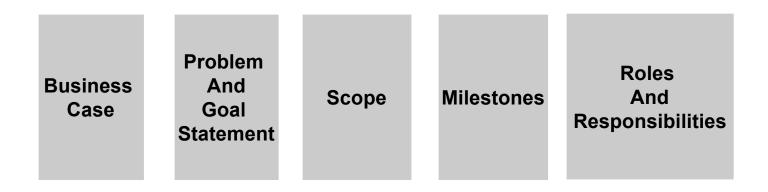
Determine Priority CTQs (continued)

CTQ Definition And CTQ Elements

Once the specific needs statement has been written, the actual CTQ can be developed. The first element to be identified is the output characteristic.

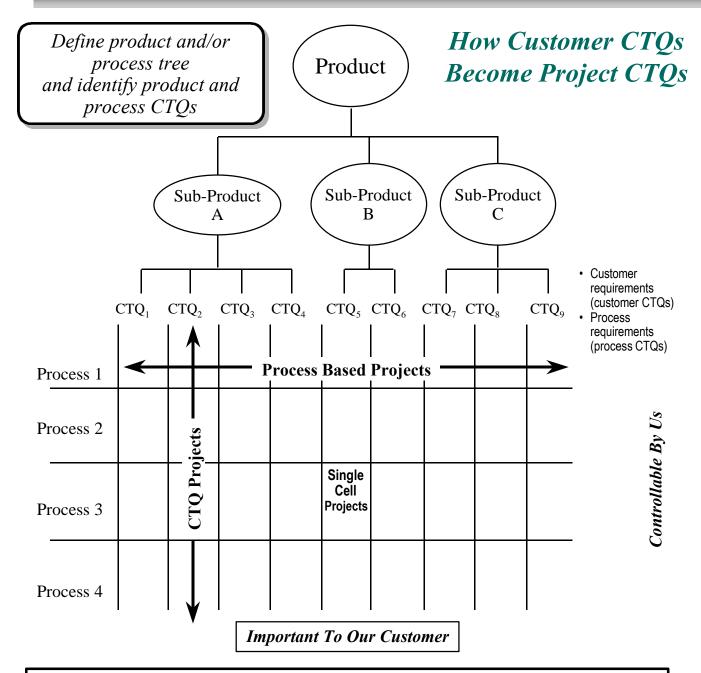








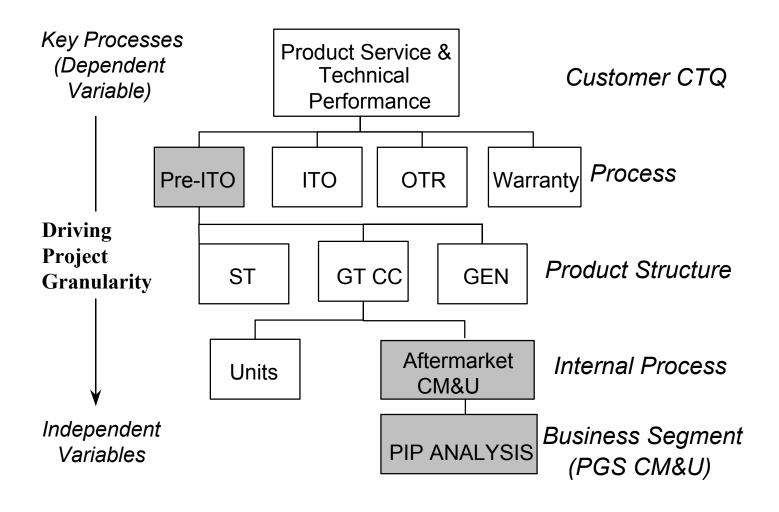
Process/Product Drill-Down Tree



The Black/Green Belt is assigned to work on removing defects on the selected CTQs by improving processes.



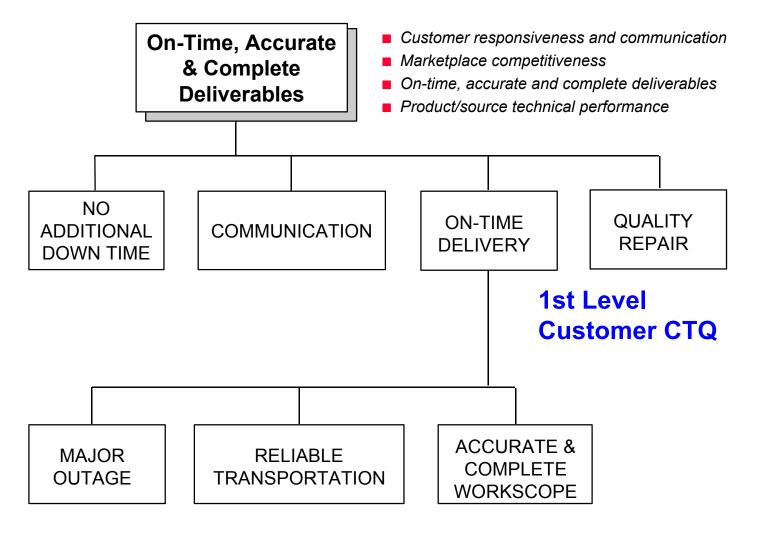
Payback analysis of combined-cycle gas turbine uprates





B3095.1 Drill-Down Tree-Example

Reducing Rotor Blasting Time High-Level CTQ

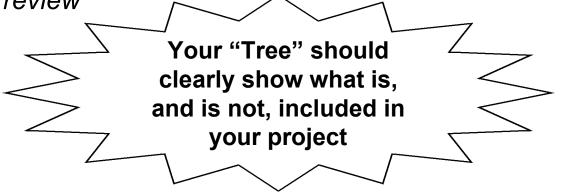


2nd (lower) Level Customer CTQ

Class Exercise: Project/Product Tree

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- Work individually on your projects; compare with others at your table
- Your task:
 - Based on all previous Define work, draw a process/product Drill-Down tree for your project
 - The instructor will select individuals to present their definitions to the class for review

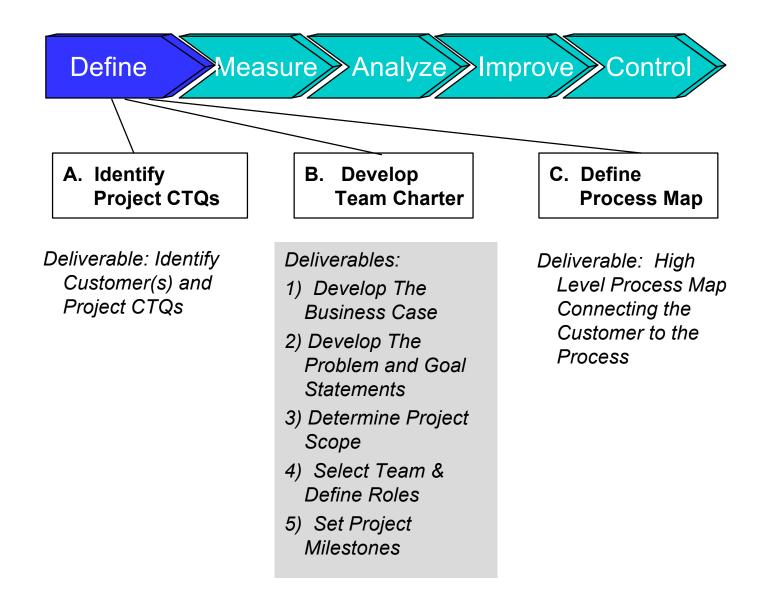


Take Aways—Identify Project CTQs

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- A successful project is focused on the customer and is clearly bound with defined goals.
- To determine project CTQs the customer and their wants must be determined. Critical to Quality characteristics (CTQs) are determined by the customer.
- A successful project is related to one or more of the four Vital Customer CTQs:
 - Customer Responsiveness/Communication
 - Market Place Competitiveness -Product/Price/Value
 - On-Time, Accurate, and Complete Customer Deliverables
 - Product/Service Technical Performance
- Project CTQs are integrated with the business strategy through the product/process drill-down tree.

Define Phase



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Team Chartering

A Charter:

- Clarifies what is expected of the team
- Keeps the team focused
- Keeps the team aligned with organizational priorities

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— Transfers the project from the champion to the improvement team

Five Major Elements of a Charter

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- Business Case
 - Explanation of why to do the project
- Problem and Goal Statements
 - Description of the problem/opportunity or objective in clear, concise, measurable terms
- Project Scope
 - Process dimensions, available resources
- Milestones
 - Key steps and dates to achieve goal
- Roles
 - People, expectations, responsibilities



The Business Case

- Why is the project worth doing?
- Why is it important to do it now?
- What are the consequences of <u>NOT</u> doing the project?
- What activities have higher or equal priority?
- How does it fit with business initiatives and target?

Problem and Goal Statements

The purpose of the Problem Statement is to describe what is wrong

(H)

The Goal Statement then defines the team's improvement objective

Together they provide focus and purpose for the team



- What is wrong or not meeting our customer's needs?
- When and where do the problems occur?

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- How big is the problem?
- What is the impact of the problem?

Description of the "Pain"

Problem Statement Example

Poor Example:

Our customers are angry with us and late in paying their bill.

(H)

Improved Example:

In the last 6 months (when), 20% of our repeat customers - not first-timers - are over 60 days late (what) paying our invoices. The current rate of late payments is up from 10% in 1990 and represents 30% of our outstanding receivables (magnitude). This negatively affects our operating cash flow (impact or consequence).

The Problem Statement

Key Considerations/Potential Pitfalls

Is the problem based on observation (fact) or assumption (guess)?

(H)

- Does the problem statement prejudge a root cause?
- Can data be collected by the team to verify and analyze the problem?
- Is the problem statement too narrowly or broadly defined?
- Is a solution included or implied in the statement?
- Would customers be happy if they knew we were working on this?

The Goal Statement

Project Objective

Definition of the improvement the team is seeking to accomplish?
Starts with a verb (reduce, eliminate, control, increase).
Tends to start broadly - eventually should include measurable target and completion date.

(H)

 Must not assign blame, presume cause, or prescribe solution! **SMART Problem and Goal Statements**

96)

Specific Measurable Attainable Relevant Time Bound



What process will the team focus on?

GE)

- What are the boundaries of the process we are to improve? Start point? Stop point?
- What resources are available to the team?
- What (if anything) is out-of-bounds for the team?
- What (if any) constraints must the team work under?
- What is the time commitment expected of team members? What are the advantages to each team member for the time commitment?

8 Steps to Bound a Project

These steps work best when used in a Project Bounding Workout Session with the project team. Plan a minimum of 1-2 hours for the session, depending on the complexity of the project.

æ

- 1. Identify the customer
 - Who receives the process output?
 - May be an internal or external customer
- 2. Define customer's expectations and needs
 - Ask the customer
 - Think like the customer
 - Rank or prioritize the expectations
- 3. Clearly specify your deliverables tied to those expectations
 - What are the process outputs?
 - Tangible and intangible deliverables
 - Rank or prioritize the deliverables
 - Rank your confidence in meeting each deliverable
- 4. Identify CTQs for those deliverables
 - What are the specific, measurable attributes that are most critical in the deliverables?
 - Select those that have the greatest impact on customer satisfaction

8 Steps to Bound a Project

5. Map your process

- The process of producing the deliverables
- The process as it is working prior to the project

(H)

- If you are delivering something, there is a process, even if it has not been formalized
- 6. Determine where in the process the CTQs can be most seriously affected
 - Use a detailed flowchart
 - Estimate which steps contain the most variability
- 7. Evaluate which CTQs have the greatest opportunity for improvement
 - Consider available resources
 - Compare variation in the processes with the various CTQs
 - Emphasize process steps which are under the control of the team conducting the project
- 8. Define the project to improve the CTQs you have selected
 - Define the defect to be attacked



Milestones

- A preliminary, high-level project plan with dates
- Tied to phases of DMAIC process
- Should be aggressive (don't miss "window of opportunity")
- Should be realistic (Don't force yourselves into "band-aid" solution)

Week:	1 2 3 4
Review charter with Champion	Х
Collect VOC	X X
Complete Map	X X
Validate Map	Х
Collect Data	Х

Team Roles

How do you want the champion to work with the team?

(H)

- Is the team's role to implement or recommend?
- When must the team go to the champion for approval? What authority does the team have to act independently?
- What and how do you want to inform the champion about the team's progress?
- What is the role of the team leader (Black/Green Belt) and the team coach (Master Black Belt)?
- Are the right members on the team? Functionally? Hierarchically?

Problem/Goal Statements Exercise

96)

Objective	•	Practice drafting key components of team charter.
le structions	•	Divide your team into two subgroups.
Instructions	•	Each subgroup is to identify one real problem.
	•	Describe the business casean explanation of why to do the project.
	•	Determine the problem and goal statements. Provide a description of the problem/opportunity or objective in clear, concise, measurable terms.
	•	Project scopeinclude process dimensions, available resources, what is in and out of bounds.
	•	Milestoneskey steps and dates to achieve goal.
	•	Rolespeople, expectations, responsibilities.
	•	Review and critique each other's statements.
	•	Prepare to share learnings.

A Good Project

A good project:

Problem & goal statement clearly stated

(¥E)

- Defect & opportunity definition is clearly understood
- Does not presuppose a solution
- Clearly relates to the customer and customer requirements
- Aligns to the business strategy
- Uses the tools effectively
- Data Driven

A bad project:

- Project is not focused—scope is too broad
- Not clear on what you are trying to fix
- Solution is already known/mandated without proper investigation
- Difficult to see linkage to customer needs
- Working on a project that will not move the needles
- *Little or no use of tools*
 - Anecdotal--not data driven

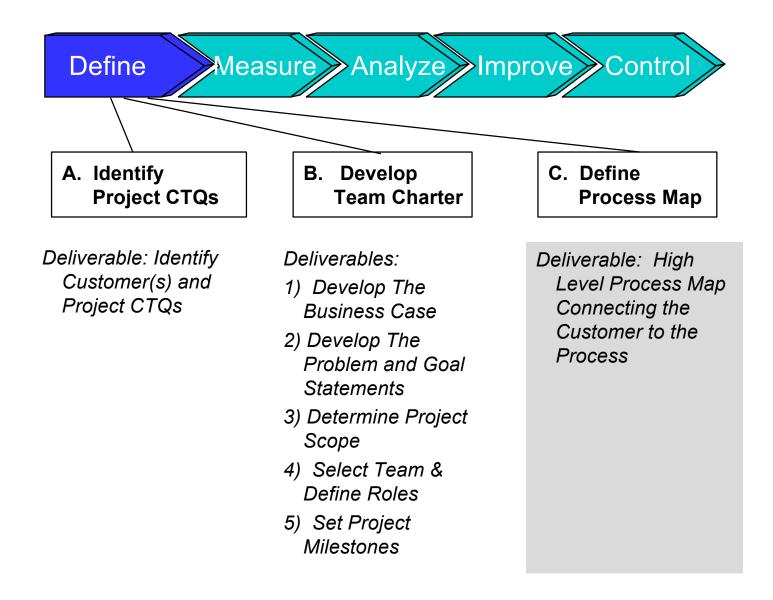
Take Aways—Develop Team Charter

(H)

- Key elements of a charter include: Business Case, Problem and Goal Statements, Project Scope, Milestones, and Roles.
- The team charter is a vital part of the project's overall success. It communicates the project direction to all members of the team.
- A Problem Statement describes what is wrong while a Goal Statement defines the improvement objective.
- A charter clarifies what is expected of the project team, keeps the team focused, keeps the team aligned with organizational priorities, and transfers the project from the champion to the improvement team.

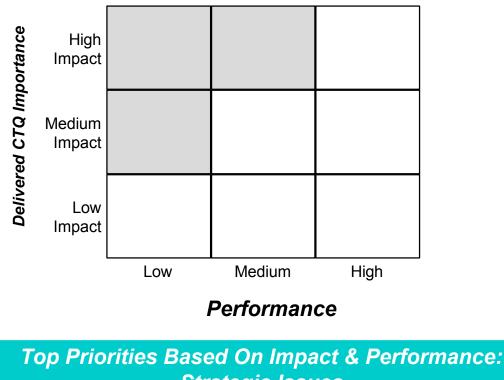


Define Phase - Define Process Map





Selecting the Right Projects

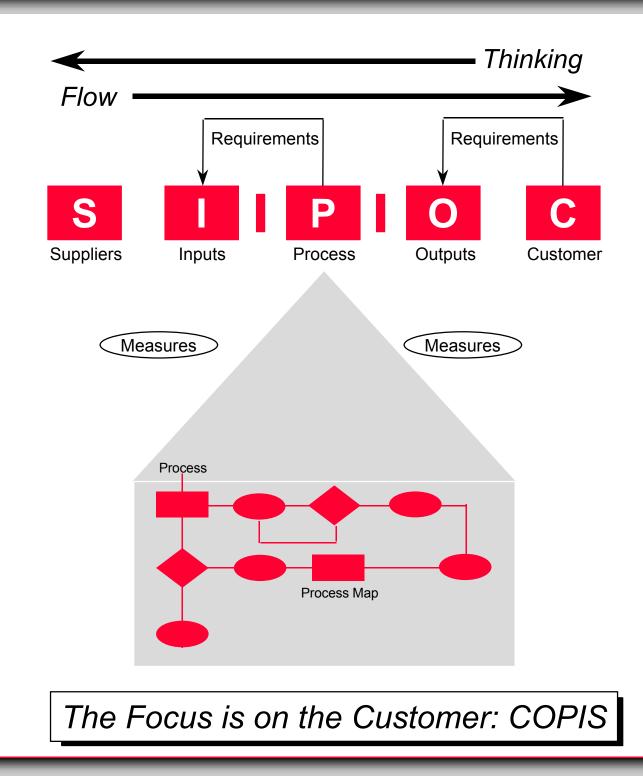


Strategic Issues

- Six issues in selecting a project:
 - Process
 - Feasibility (Is it doable?)
 - Measurable impact
 - Potential for improvement
 - Resource support within the organization
 - Project interactions

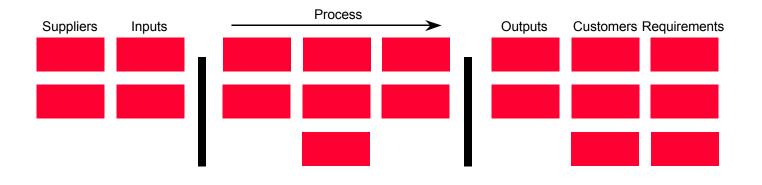


Business Process Mapping





Steps of Process Mapping



- Name the process
- Identify the outputs, customers, suppliers, & inputs
- Identify customer requirements for primary outputs
- Identify process steps

Take Aways—Define Process Map

A process map for a project includes:

— Customers and their key requirements

GE)

- *Outputs*
- Process Steps
- Inputs
- Suppliers
- A process map connects the customer to the process and helps to identify key inputs and requirements.

The process map at this stage of your project should be at a high level.



96)

Tools to Get Started: ARMI Model

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	PROJECT PHASE							
Key Stakeholders	Startup/Planning	Implementation	Evaluation					

- *What:* A tool to determine individuals and/or groups whose commitment is essential for project success
- *Why:* To ensure that the project leader has identified Key Stakeholders
- *How:* List individuals/groups involved in the process and identify project function



ARMI Model

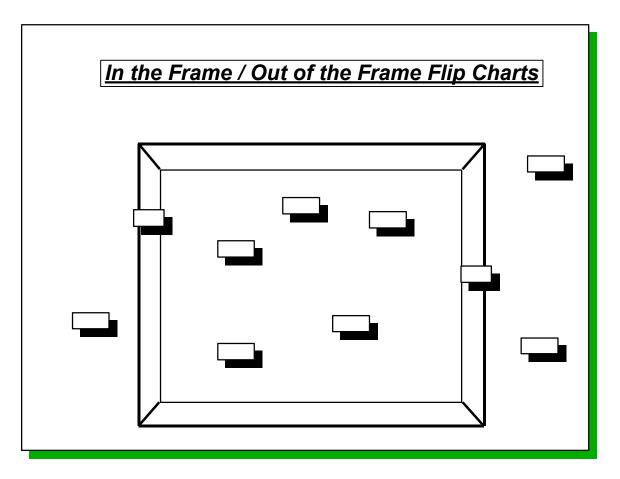
	PROJECT PHASE							
Key Stakeholders	Startup/Planning	Implementation	Evaluation					

- A Approval of team decisions outside their charter authorities, i.e., sponsor, business leader
- **R** Resource to the team, one whose expertise, skills, or clout may be needed on an <u>ad hoc</u> basis
- M Member of team, with the authorities and boundaries of the charter
- I Interested party, one who will need to be kept informed on direction, findings, if later support is to be forthcoming

In/Out of the Frame

Tool: In/Out of the Frame - This is a visual tool based on the analogy of a picture frame. It challenges the team to identify those aspects of the project (the type and extent of end results or deliverables, the people impacted, timing, product lines impacted, sites involved, etc.) which are "in the frame" (meaning clearly within the scope of work), "out of the frame," or "half-in-half-out" (meaning this is either up for debate, or some aspects are in the scope of work but only in a partial way.)

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<u>Uses:</u> Not as complex as SIPOC, but useful when you feel there are many "boundary issues" facing the team (differences of opinion as to what is and isn't in the scope of work).

In/Out of the Frame

<u>Steps:</u> 1. Gather all storyboard materials and find a wall space large enough to accommodate the completed chart.

2. Help the team get organized to complete the chart. A hint here: encourage team members to use the location of cards they place on the chart to indicate how strongly they feel about a particular aspect of the project (a card placed in the middle of the frame signifies a strong sense that this aspect is clearly within the scope of work, while one placed near the border refers to an aspect that a person is a bit suspicious about).

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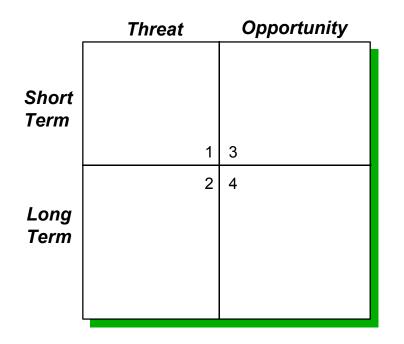
3. Draw a large square "picture frame" on a flip chart (or use tape on a wall) and use this metaphor to help the team identify what falls inside the picture of their project and what falls out. This may be in terms of type and extent of end results, people impacted, time frame, product lines, sites, etc.

3. Discuss with Champion/Functional Leader and other key stakeholders and resolve differences.

4. OPTION: You might want to instruct the team to place their cards on the chart without talking to one another and then to have a 5-10 minute silent team huddle to resolve differences. That is, in silence, team members begin to move the cards others have placed on the chart to "get it right" from their perspective. If a card is moved and the originator of it disagrees, he/she can move it back, but then a dot is placed on it to signify that some discussion is warranted. Having to work in silence is challenging for a talkative team and can be both fun and a nice change of pace, and, they are <u>really</u> ready to talk when the time is up.

Tool: Threat vs. Opportunity Matrix - "Best Practice" organizations know how to frame the need for change as more than a short-term threat. They work to find ways to frame the need as a threat and opportunity over both the short and long term. By doing so, they begin to get the attention of key stakeholders in a fashion that ensures their involvement beyond what can be gained from a short-term sense of urgency.

GE)



Uses: Building the "case for change" is one of the first and most important tasks of the team. This simple tool helps the team discover how to frame the need for change more broadly and perhaps break some old habits about change only as it applies to a short-term threat.

Threat vs. Opportunity Matrix

Steps: 1. Working individually, team members pick which of the four quadrants "fits" the need for change for this change initiative. Team members share their perceptions and then debate and discuss similarities and differences.

2. Individuals then write a 3-4 sentence statement of the need for change using language that speaks to as many of the four quadrants as possible.

(H)

3. Team members read their statements and the team debates and discusses each to create a statement that encompasses the best of each individual effort. This statement is then modified to appeal to key constituent groups (manufacturing, marketing, engineering, etc.).

4. OPTION: Though most teams find this discussion fairly straightforward, some struggle with the degree of specificity required to really frame the need for change along both dimensions. Therefore, it may be useful to begin this discussion and then table it for additional work once the vision has been articulated and the key stakeholders have been identified. It is not unusual to find a team finally ready to use this tool <u>after</u> they have worked on the vision and begun to do a stakeholder analysis.

G.R.P.I. Check List

Tool: G.R.P.I. Check List - This tool is based on a simple model for team formation. It challenges the team to consider four critical and interrelated aspects of teamwork: **G**oals, **R**oles, **P**rocesses and Interpersonal relationships. It is invaluable in helping a group become a team.

G. R. P. I. Team Model

G. R. P. I. Checklist	Low			ŀ	ligh
GOALS - How clear and in agreement are we on the mission and goals of our team/projects?	1	2	3	4	5
ROLES - How well do we understand, agree on, and fulfill the roles and responsibilities for our team?	1	2	3	4	5
PROCESSES - To what degree do we understand and agree on the way we'll approach our project AND our team? (Procedures and approaches for getting our project work done? For running our team?)	1	2	3	4	5
INTERPERSONAL - Are the relationships on our team working well so far? How is our level of openness, trust, and acceptance?	1	2	3	4	5

<u>Uses:</u> An excellent organizing tool for newly-formed teams or for teams that have been underway for a while, but who have never taken time to look at their teamwork. Ideally, this tool should be used at one of the first team meetings. It can and should be updated as the project unfolds.



Steps: 1. Distribute copies of the check list to all team members prior to a team meeting. Invite team members to add details/examples on each of the four dimensions of the check list. Ask each team member to bring his/her completed checklist to the team meeting.

2. At the team meeting discuss and resolve issues related to the check list.

(H)

3. Share certain aspects with Champion/Functional Leader if appropriate.

4. OPTION: When there is considerable disagreement or tension within the team environment, team members can choose to complete the questionnaire individually and turn it in to a neutral party who will collate the data and give it back to the team in an aggregate fashion (thus protecting the anonymity of individual team members).



Expanded Version of the Tool: Useful when a more detailed look at team elements is required.

Assessing Project Team Status

How would you rate the degree to which your team presently has CLARITY, AGREEMENT, and EFFECTIVENESS on the following GRPI-related elements?

		0 %	25 %	50 %	
G	• Purposes & Outcomes We understand and agree on our project mission and the desired outcome (vision).				
	Customer & Needs				
	We know who the project stakeholders are, what they require, and why this project is really needed.				
	 Goals & Deliverables 				
	We have identified specific, measurable & prioritized project goals & deliverables linked to our business goals.				
	• Project Scope Definition We understand/agree on what in/out of our project scope & tasks. The project scope is "set".				
R	• Roles & Responsibilities We have defined & agreed on our roles, responsibilities, required skills, and resources for our project team				
	• Authority & Autonomy Out team is clear on the degree of authority / empowerment we have to meet our project mission.				



Assessing Project Team Status (Cont.)

		0 %	25 %	50 %	100 %
Ρ	• Critical Success Factors We know and are focusing on the key factors needed to meet the project goals and mission,				
	 Plans & Activities 				
	We have an effective game plan to follow that includes the right tasks; clearly defined/assigned.				
	 Monitoring & Measures We have an effective monitoring process and specific metrics linked to progress and goals 				
	 Schedule / Milestones 				
	We have defined our project schedule and know what the key phases and milestones are.				
	 Team Operating Agreement 				
	We have shared expectations, agreed and followed guidelines for how our team works together				
	 Interpersonal / Team 				
	We have the necessary relationships, trust, openness, participation and behaviors for a healthy & productive team.				

Define Deliverables

Identify project through business theme and personal issue

(H)

- Review Six Sigma Quality Project Tracking database for similar projects
- Identify internal/external CTQs
- Create high-level process map
- Create defect definition and opportunity
- Create drill-down tree
- Identify potential data sources
- Identify team members and business functions required
- Identify Information Technology (IT) requirements
- Identify financial impact
- Open project in Six Sigma Quality Project Tracking database

Now That We Have Defined the Project...

Define - Measure - Analyze - Improve - Control

96)

The next phase is Measure:

- Select one or more CTQ characteristics; i.e., dependent variables,
- Map the respective process,
- Define performance standards,
- Measurement Systems Analysis

(H)

Introduction to the Measurement Phase

Using Statistics to Solve Problems The 12 Step Process

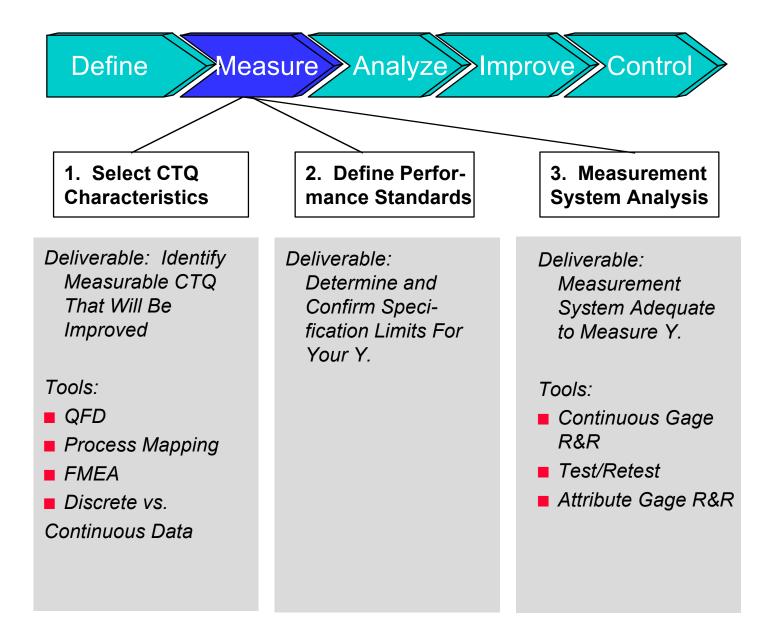


The 12 Step Process

Step	Description	Focus	Tools	SSQC Deliverables
Define A B C	Identify Project CTQs Develop Team Charter Define Process Map			Project CTQs (1) Approved Charter (2) High Level Process Map (3)
Measur	e			
1	Select CTQ Characteristics	Y	Customer, QFD, FMEA	Project Y (4)
2	Define Performance Standards	Y	Customer, Blueprints	Performance Standard for Project Y (5)
3	Measurement System Analysis	Y	Continuous Gage R&R, Test/Retest, Attribute R&R	Data Collection Plan & MSA (6), Data for Project Y (7)
Analyze	9			
4	Establish Process Capability	Y	Capability Indices	Process Capability for Project Y (8)
5	Define Performance Objectives	Y	Team, Benchmarking	Improvement Goal for Project Y (9)
6	Identify Variation Sources	Х	Process Analysis, Graphical Analysis, Hypothesis Tests	Prioritized List of all Xs (10)
Improv	9			
7	Screen Potential Causes	Х	DOE-Screening	List of Vital Few Xs (11)
8	Discover Variable Relationships	Х	Factorial Designs	Proposed Solution (13)
9	Establish Operating Tolerances	Υ, Χ	Simulation	Piloted Solution (14)
Control				
10	Define & Validate Measurement System on X's in Actual Application	Υ, Χ	Continuous Gage R&R, Test/Retest, Attribute R&R	MSA
11	Determine Process Capability	Υ, Χ	Capability Indices	Process Capability Y, X (15)
12	Implement Process Control	Х	Control Charts, Mistake Proof, FMEA	Sustained Solution (15), Documentation (16),



Measure Phase



Overview

In the Measure phase we will select one or more product or process characteristics to address, we will map the respective process to show us what it actually looks like, we will validate our measurement system and then we will take our measurements.

X



By the end of this section, the participant will be able to:

H)

- Identify the Project Y
- Define the performance standards for Y including specification limits as well as defect and opportunity definitions
- Validate the measurement system
- Collect the data
- Characterize the data using mean and standard deviation

The Phases of the 12 Step Process

- **Phase 1 (Define).** This phase defines the project. It identifies customer CTQs and ties them to business needs. Further, it defines a project charter and the business process bounded by the project.
- **Phase 2 (Measurement)**. This phase is concerned with selecting one or more product characteristics; i.e., dependent variables, mapping the respective process, making sure the measurement system is valid, making the necessary measurements and recording the results.
- **Phase 3 (Analysis)**. This phase entails estimating the short- and long-term process capability and benchmarking the key product performance metrics. Following this, a gap analysis is often undertaken to identify the common factors of successful performance; i.e., what factors explain best-in-class performance. In some cases, it is necessary to redesign the product and/or process.
- **Phase 4 (Improvement)**. This phase is usually initiated by selecting those product performance characteristics which must be improved to achieve the goal. Once this is done, the characteristics are diagnosed to reveal the major sources of variation. Next, the key process variables are identified by way of statistically designed experiments. For each process variable which proves to be significant, performance specifications are established.
- **Phase 5 (Control)**. This phase is related to ensuring that the new process conditions are documented and monitored via statistical process control methods. After a "settling in" period, the process capability would be reassessed. Depending upon the outcomes of such a follow-on analysis, it may be necessary to revisit one or more of the preceding phases.



The Components of Breakthrough

Product Characterization

is concerned with the identification and benchmarking of key product characteristics. By way of a gap analysis, common success factors are identified.

Process Optimization

is aimed at the identification and containment of those process variables which exert undue influence over the key product characteristics.



Characterization

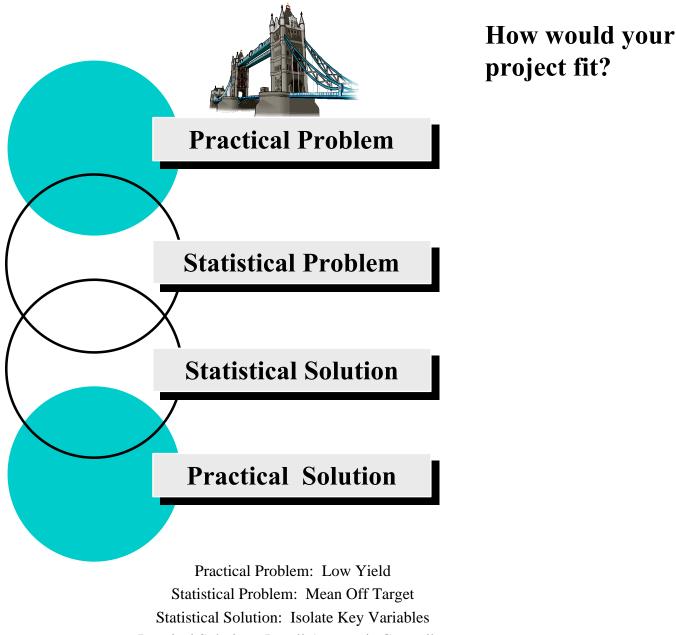
Measurement and Analysis "Where we are at and where we must go"

Region of Success Current Level X

Optimization Improvement and Control "What action we must take to get and stay there"



Using Statistics to Solve Problems



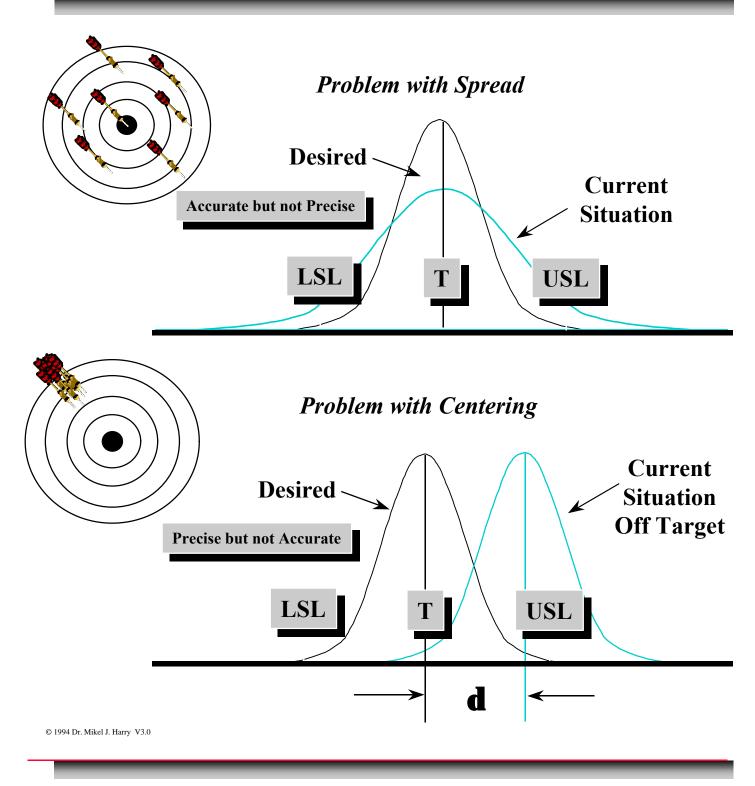
Practical Solution: Install Automatic Controller

© 1994 Dr. Mikel J. Harry V3.0

Introduction to Measure



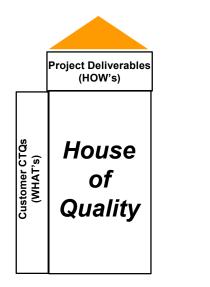
The Nature of Statistical Problems

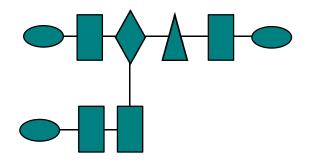




Select a CTQ Characteristic

Selecting the project Y





			san	s/Product d Effects Analysis IEA)				
Process or Product Namo:	REDUCTION IN NDT PREP TIME ON GT COMPRESSOR ROTORS					Prepared by: STALEY EDWARDS		
Responsible:	STALEY EDWARDS					FMEA Date (Orig) JUNE , 25, 199	3 (Rev	·)
Process Step/Part Number	Potential Failure Mode	Potential Failure Effects	S E V	Potential Causes	0 0 0 0	Current Controls	D E T	R P N
PREP FOR BLAST		BLAST MEDIA GETS IN BETWEEN ROTOR WHEEL	8	WORKMANSHIP / MATERIAL	2	PLANNING ROUTER AND VISUAL	2	3 2
**BLAST CLEAN		BLAST MEDIA GETS IN BETWEEN ROTOR WHEEL	8	MATERIAL / OVERBLASTING	3	VISUAL INSPECTION DURING BLAST PROCESS	3	72
**PREP FOR NDT	TAPE RESIDUE ON WHEELS	EXCESSIVE HOURS TO CLEAN FOR NDT	7	MATERIAL / OVERBLASTING	9	NONE	10	630
	INSUFFICIENT CLEANING CAUSING QUESTIONABLE	POSSIBLILTY OF NOT SEEING RELATIVE INDICATIONS DURING NDT		BLASTING , CLEANING AND MATERIAL	2	MANUAL CLEANING PRIOR TO NDT	3	60

Define Performance Standards

E)

It answers the questions:

What does the customer want?

What is a good product/process?

What is a defect?

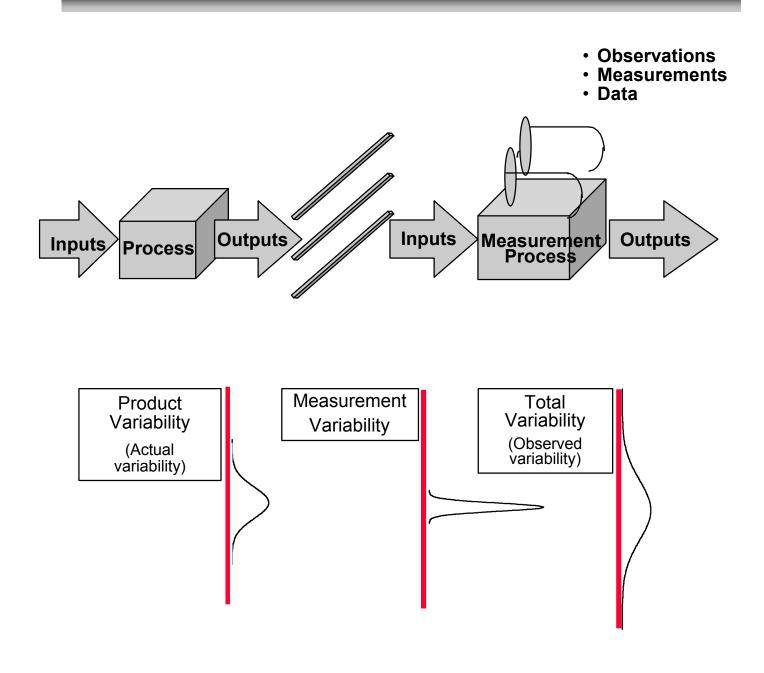
Examples:

Cycle time for drawings from order to proceed to delivery of drawings < 15 weeks

Part dimensions-15.5 <u>+</u> 0.03 inches

Computer leasing cost < \$100 per unit per month Measurement Systems Analysis

96)

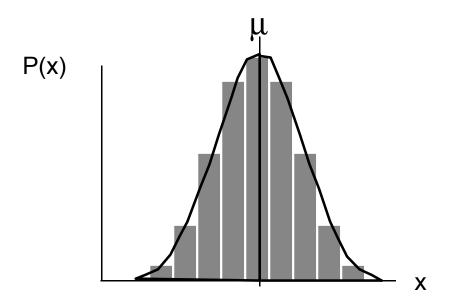




Using Statistics to Solve Problems

Goal: To find the relationship

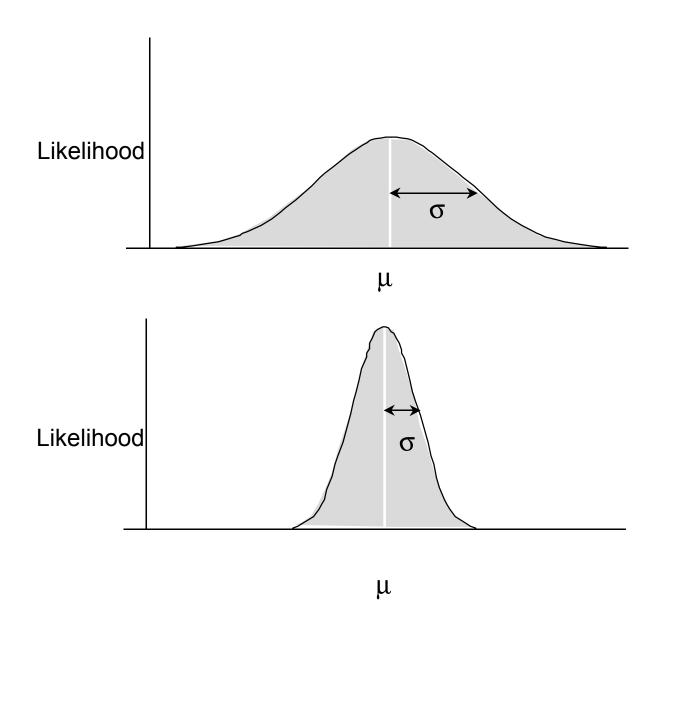
 $Y = f(X_1, ..., X_n)$



Data Driven Analysis

Using Statistics to Characterize Processes

¥6)





Measure Deliverables

- Review internal/external CTQs
- Review competition/customer requirements to establish defect definition
- Validate that defect definition can be measured (validate data source)
- Establish data type (discrete vs. continuous), validate measurement system
- Start data gathering process
- Insure that team members provide input and understanding of project
- Develop process map with team members



The variation of any dependent variable Y is determined by the variation of each of the independent variables Xs.

E)

- The shape, **mean** and **standard deviation**, of a distribution curve characterizes a process.
- Precision is the consistency of a process as measured by the standard deviation.
 Accuracy is the ability to stay on target (on goal) as measured by the mean. The goal is to have a process that is both accurate (on target) and precise (small variation).



Process characterization describes the distribution of the data.

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We will be using the five phases: D - M -A - I - C as a systematic approach for our improvement efforts.



McDonald's Case Study

PREVIEW of Define-Measure-Analyze (DMA)

This is an optional example.



Objectives of this Preview

McDonald's Case:

- Give preview of what is to come
- Show use of data to drive improvement
- Set performance standards (specifications) using customer survey data
- Identify sources of variation (SOVs) = total, within & between variation (SST = SSW + SSB)
- Determine process capability subgrouping, control vs. technology
- Provide hands-on introduction to Minitab tools



The 12 Step Process

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Contro	bl			
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11	Determine Process Capability	Υ, Χ	Capability Indices	Process Capability Y, X (15)
12	Implement Process Control	Х	Control Charts, Mistake Proof, FMEA	Sustained Solution (15), Documentation (16),



Define & Measure

Define : Step A: Identify Project CTQs Step B: Develop Team Charter Step C: Define Process Map

Measure Step 1: Select CTQ Characteristic

You are McDonald's Green Belt Project team for this market area. To increase customer satisfaction and capture more market share, you performed customer surveys and a **Quality Function Deployment** (QFD) analysis. The survey and analysis indicate that "service time" is a major **Critical to Quality Characteristic** (<u>CTQ</u>) for the customer.

You separate "service time" into two parts:

- 1. wait time in line
- 2. <u>order time</u> (time from when the customer is greeted and begins to order until they are given their food and change)



Scenario: McDonald's Case Study

Measure Step 2: Define Performance Standards

<u>Order Time</u> is the **measure of performance** selected for the CTQ of minimal service time. To determine what the <u>performance standard</u> should be, you survey 100 randomly selected customers, asking them:

"To ensure repeat business, how much time are you willing to spend from when you start to order your food until you are given your food and change?"

The survey data is contained in Minitab file McD_stp2.mtw—note that there are n = 100 responses. Each response is a customer's reply, in seconds, to the above question.

Based on this data, determine the performance standard, or "specification" for <u>order time</u> that you would recommend.



Scenario: Continued

Measure Step 3: Establish Data Collection Plan, Validate Measurement System & Collect Data

The survey response is in seconds, based on the customer's reply. The Green Belt team's next concern is:

"...can the actual order time be measured in seconds (or better, say to 1/2 second, or ...)?"

To keep our story moving, let's assume the answer is YES—the actual order time can be reliably measured in seconds.*

Your first analysis effort will focus on <u>order time</u>. Team discussion and "brain storming" results in some preliminary opinions—order time may differ for:

- store location
- service type = drive-thru versus inside counter service
- order method = by numbers(fixed) vs. menu (ala carte)
- time of day = breakfast, lunch, dinner
- etc.

*[the section on Measurement Systems Analysis addresses this issue in detail]



Scenario: Continued

Two teams of Six Sigma Green Belts were sent to gather data at two different locations—one to the Schenectady (Union St.) McDonald's and one to Clifton Park. Half of each team was asked to order at the drive-thru and half at the inside counter—for each, some to order "by number" and some "off the menu."

The following data was collected:

Order Time[seconds]Location[1 = Schenectady, 2 = Clifton Park]Service[1 = Drive-thru, 2 = Counter]Order Method[1 = By Number, 2 = Off Menu]Time of Day[hh.mm]

[Actual order time data is in file McD_st4.mtw]

Analyze Step 4: Establish Process Capability

What is the process actually doing?

Examine how store location, service type, order method and time of day impact order time.

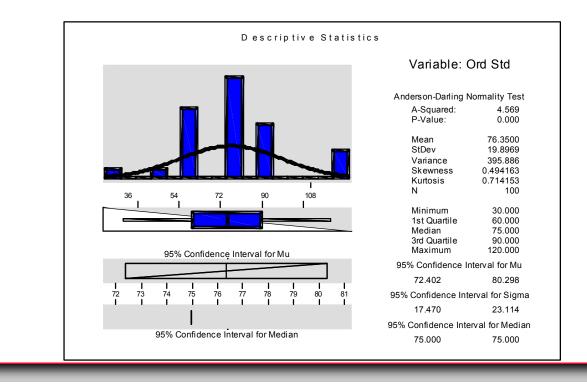
Example: Part I Performance Standard

Measure Step 2: Define Performance Standard Data File = McD_stp2.mtw

Survey Results:

- What order time is acceptable to the customer?
- Based on this, what is our "specification" for order time?

Descripti	ve Sta	tistics						
Variable	Ν	Mean	Mediar	n Tr Me	an St	Dev SE	Mean	
Ord Std	100	76.35	75.00	76.17	19.90	1.99		
Variable	Min	Max	Q1	Q3				
Ord Std	30.00	120.00	60.00	90.00				



Example: Part I Performance Standard

Measure Step 2: Define Performance Standard

Data File = McD_stp2.mtw

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DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS:

<u>"Center" or "Location" = the 4 Ms</u>

- Mean = Xbar
- Median
- Mode

•
$$Mid$$
-Range = $(Max - Min)/2$

"Dispersion" or "Spread":

- Range = (Max Min)
- Variance = $SD^2 = s^2$ [based on SST]
- Std Dev = SD = s
- Coeff. of Variation = $CV = (SD/Xbar) \times 100\%$

```
"Normal Curve" ?? :
```

```
4 Ms are » equal IP Mean = Median = Mode = Mid-Range
Skew » 0 [Skew » 3 (Mean - Median)/SD (Pearson)]
```

```
Kurtosis » 0
```

Example: Part I Performance Standard

Measure Step 2: Define PerformanceStandardData File = McD stp2.mtw

<u>Review:</u> based on the Customer survey <u>data</u>, what is the recommended performance standard?

Median = 75

StdDev = 20

Max = 120

Mean = 76 seconds

Min = 30

Range = 120-30 = 90

Also, McDonald's desires to:

"be better than average," "delight the customer" "set realistic stretch goals," "make fair profits"

Performance Standard	or S	Specifications	
Desire		Data	
LSL = 30		Min = 30	
Target = 60	VS.	Mean = 76	
USL = 90		Max = 120	

Data + Desire = Standard



Analyze Step 4: Establish Process Capability Data File = McD_stp4.mtw

<u>Review:</u> We now look at the actual Order Time data gathered by the Green Belt teams—there are k = 54 items.

Look at data—<u>column</u> orientation of Minitab

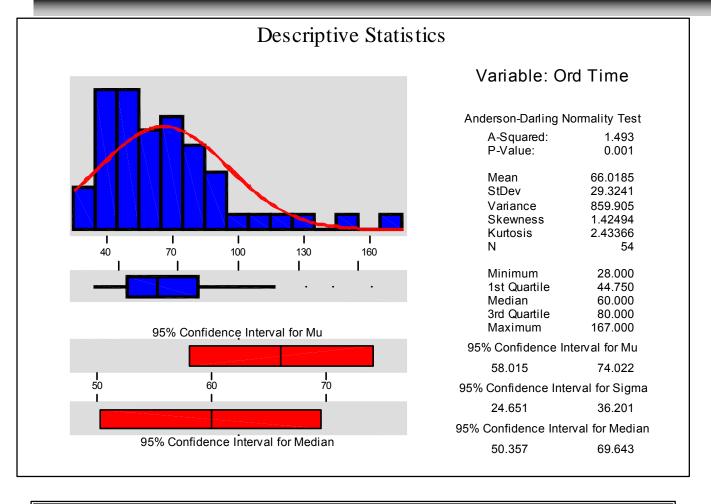
Order Time = Y = f(Location, Service, ..., etc.) or Order Time = Y = f(X1, X2, X3, ..., Xn)

- the Xs are factors that may influence the output Y
- they are the basis for "SubGrouping" the data: by Location by Service by Order Method by Team etc.

What questions can this data answer?

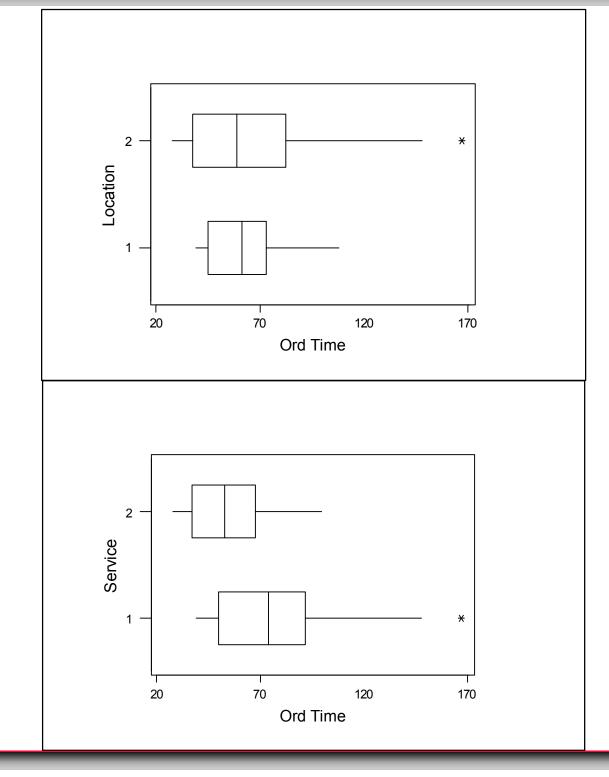
Plots or graphs help raise questions about relation between Y and the Xs



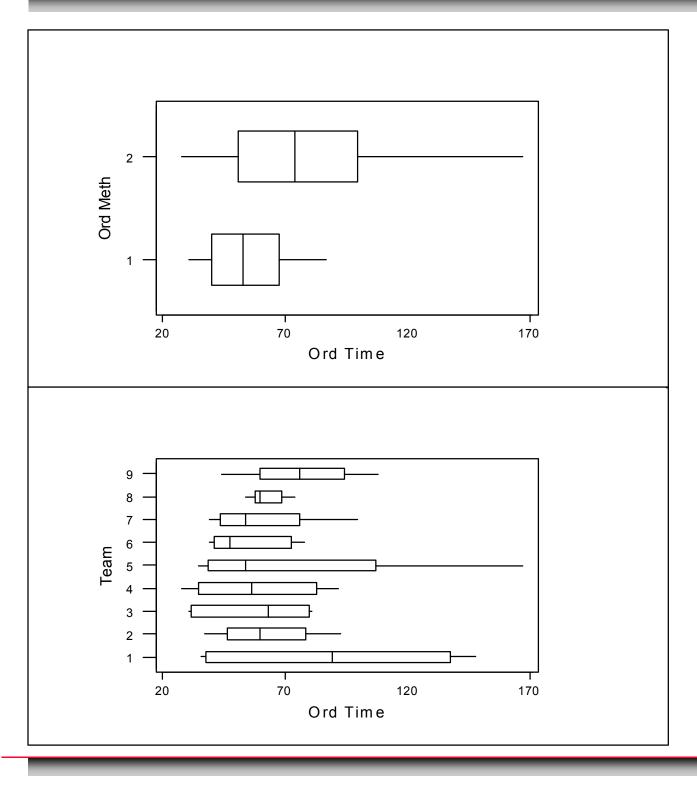


Descriptive Statistics								
Vari abl e	Ν	Mean	Medi an	Tr Me an	St Dev	SE Mean		
Ord Time	54	66.02	60.00	63.02	29.32	3.99		
Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Ql	Q3				
Ord Time	28.00	167.00	44.75	80.00				

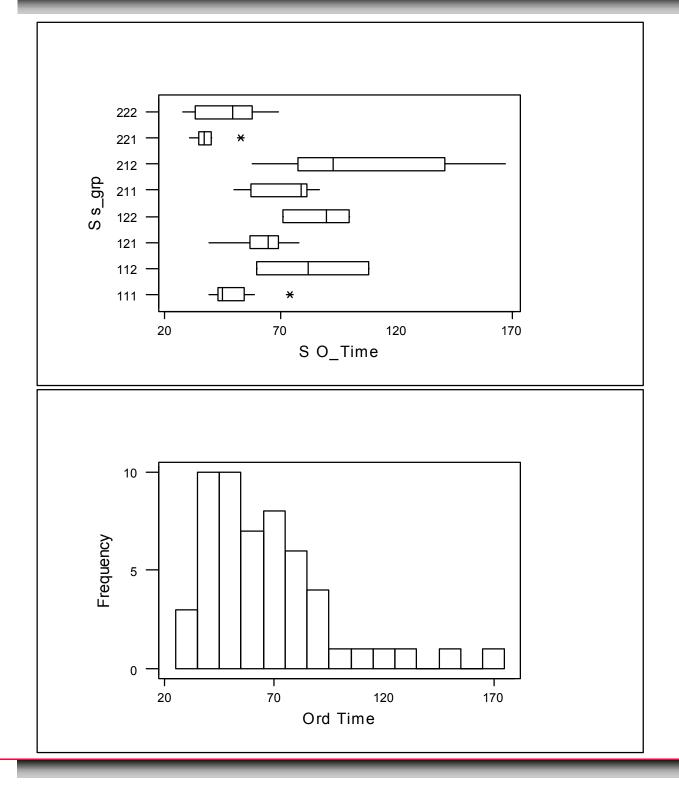




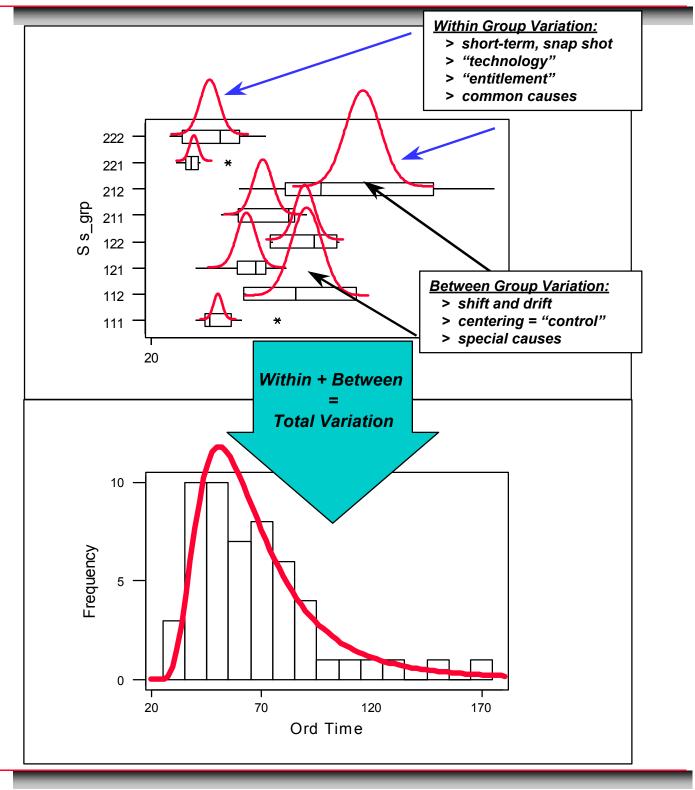




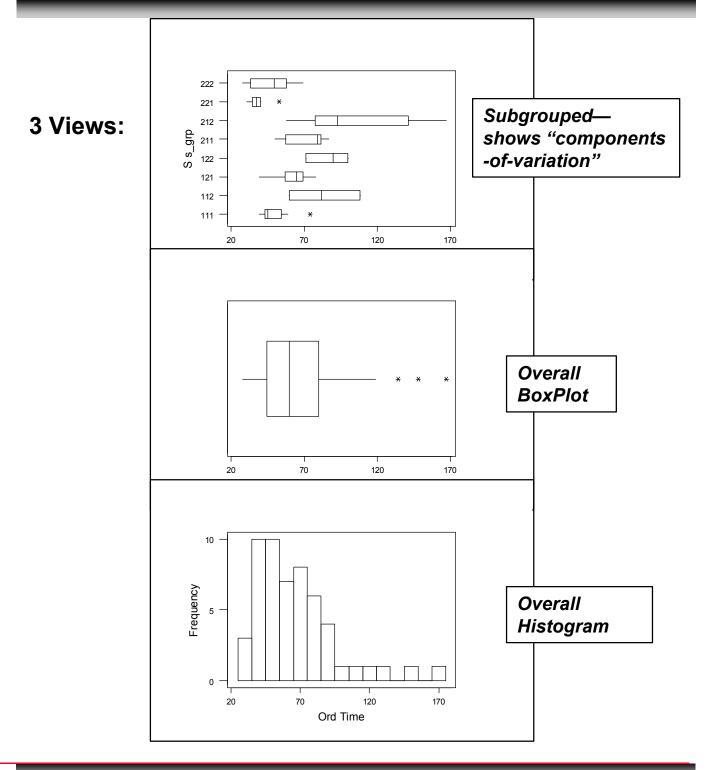






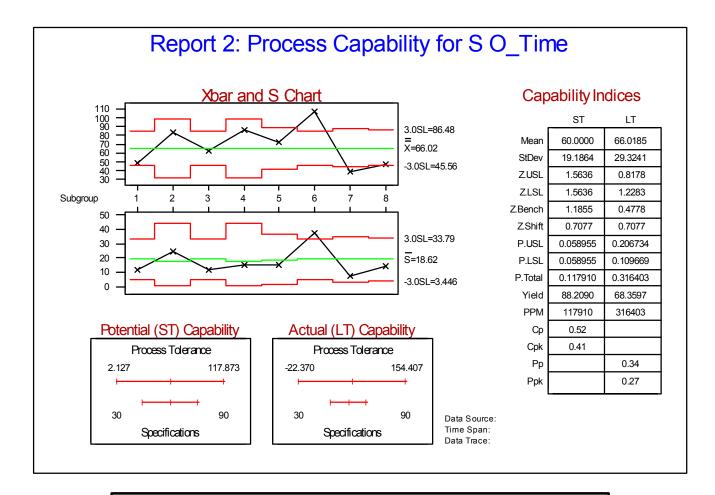












BOTTOM LINE: VARIATION (SPREAD) = too much CENTER (Mean) = not on target



Example: Part II Summary

Summary:

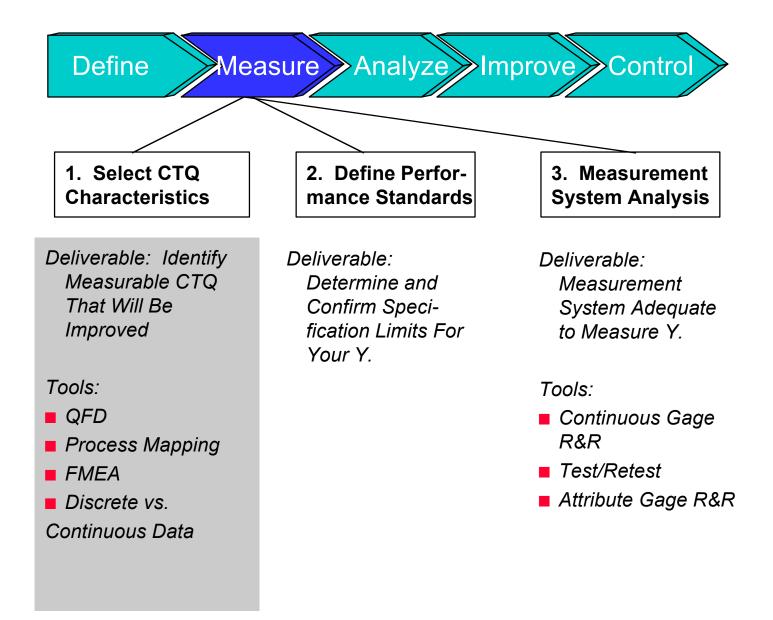
<u>Performance Standard</u> = what the customer wants & McDonald's desires:

Survey data:Mean = 76 secondsMin = 30Max = 120Range = 90StdDev = 20McDonald's desire:"Better than average," "Fair profit," ...Specification:LSL = 30Target = 60USL = 90Process Performance= what is actually happening:Study data:Mean = 66 sec.[vs. Target = 60]Min = 28Max = 167Range = 139StdDev = 29

BOTTOM LINE—replay: VARIATION (SPREAD) = too much [StdDev = 29 relative to USL = 90 and LSL = 30] CENTER (Mean) = not on target [66 vs. 60]



Measure Phase



Select CTQ Characteristic Objectives

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- By the end of Step 1, the BB/GB will have:
 - Selected the Critical to Quality (CTQ) characteristic to be improved in his/her project.
 - Narrowed the focus of his/her project to an actionable level.
 - Established the project team and gained consensus on the project definition.



Quality Function Deployment (QFD)

QFD Objectives

By the end of the training program, the participant will be able to:

%

- Relate the Quality Function Deployment (QFD) process to the Six Sigma process.
- Analyze when QFD is appropriate to use.
- Describe the phases of QFD.

THE QFD "OPPORTUNITY"

QFD Is An Opportunity to Really Listen

(H)

- The Customer Knows What They Want
- They Often Don't Directly Verbalize
- Lots of "OTHER" Stuff Tends to Surface
- Watch for What They Say They Don' Want
- Understand The Types Of Needs Of Customers
 - What Does the Customer Say
- "Voice Of The Customer" Is Also A Process
 - VOC Is The Independent Process
 - QFD Is The Dependent Process

The Customer Knows What They Want How We Extract It Also Matters



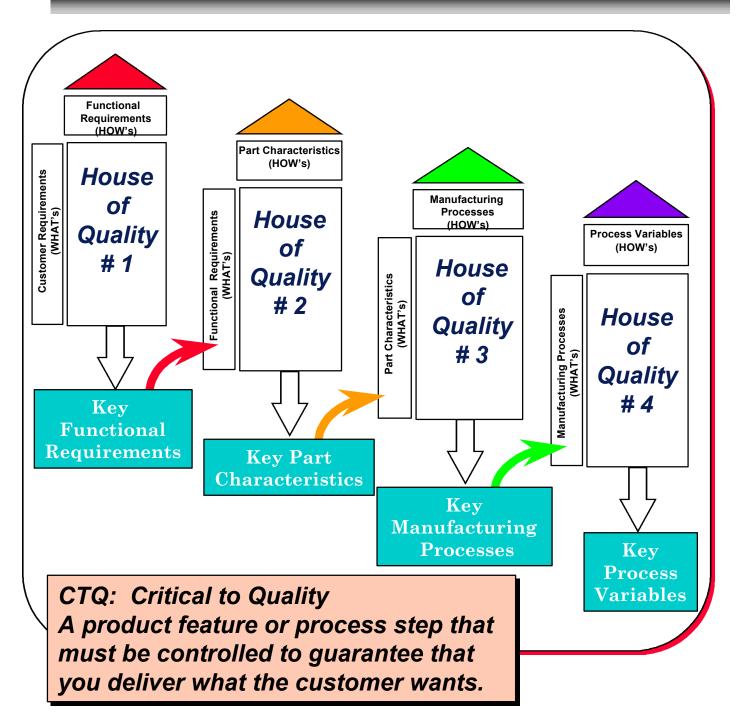
Definition of QFD

- Structured methodology to identify and translate customer needs and wants into technical requirements and measurable features and characteristics:
 - From marketing and sales
 - To research and product development
 - To engineering and manufacturing
 - To distribution and services

Used to identify Critical to Quality Characteristics (CTQs).

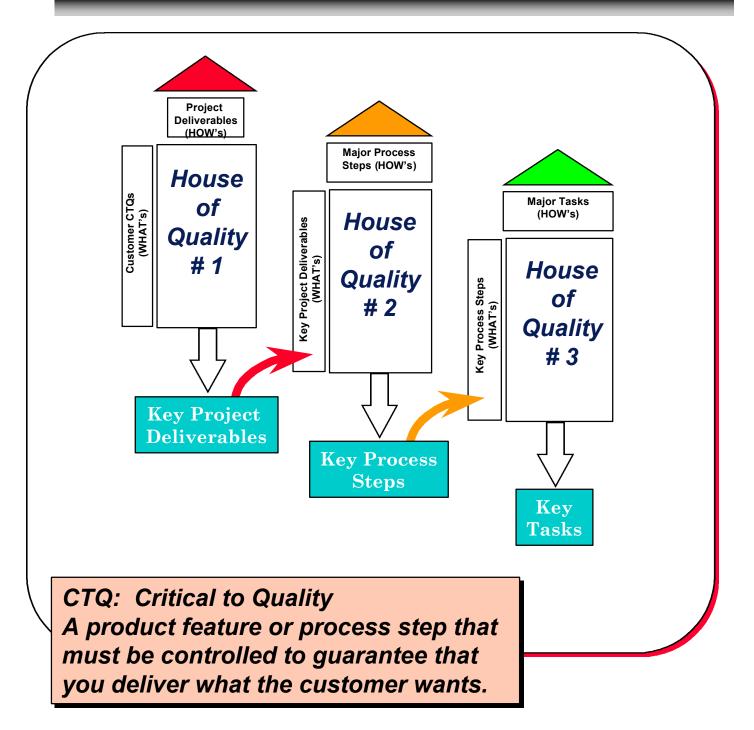
QFD Flowdown (Product Application)

(H)



QFD Flowdown (Services Application)

96)



Building a House of Quality

96)

A Product Quality Example



Generator House of Quality

			₩		↓	↓	0	
		Kilowatt Ratings	Total Available Running Hours	Total Forced Outage Time	Component Life Cycles	Fuel Cost/Kilowatt	Total Repair/ Maintenance Time	Rotor Burst Speed
Max Power Output	3	\bigcirc						
Availability	4		\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc		\triangle	
Reliability	5			\bigcirc	\bigcirc		\triangle	
Long Component Life	2		\triangle		\bigcirc			
Efficiency	4	\bigcirc				\bigcirc		
Maintainability	2						\bigcirc	
Easy to Troubleshoot	1							
		A Kilowatts	B Hours/Yr	C Hours/Yr	D Years	E \$/Kilowatt	F Hours	G RPM
		63	38	57	99	36	27	



What Does the Customer Want?

What

Max Power Output Availability Reliability Long Component Life Efficiency

Maintainability

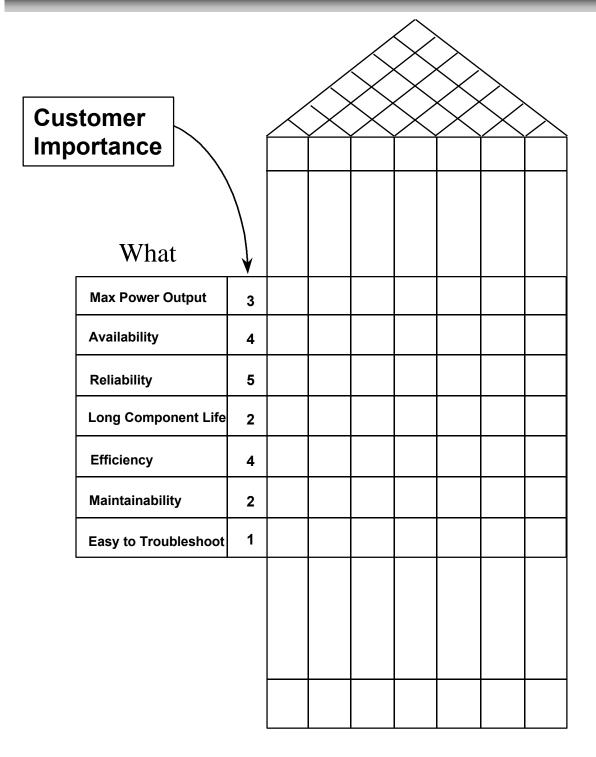
Easy to Troubleshoot

The Voice of the Customer

Select CTQ Characteristics

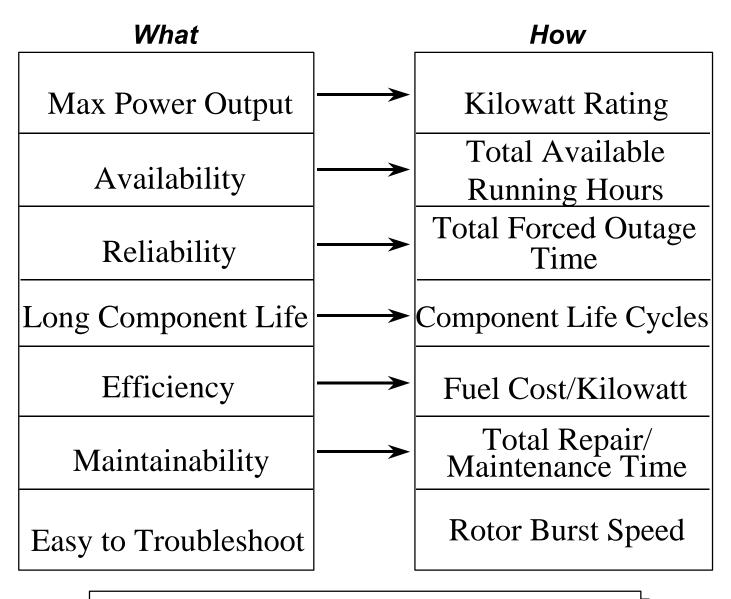


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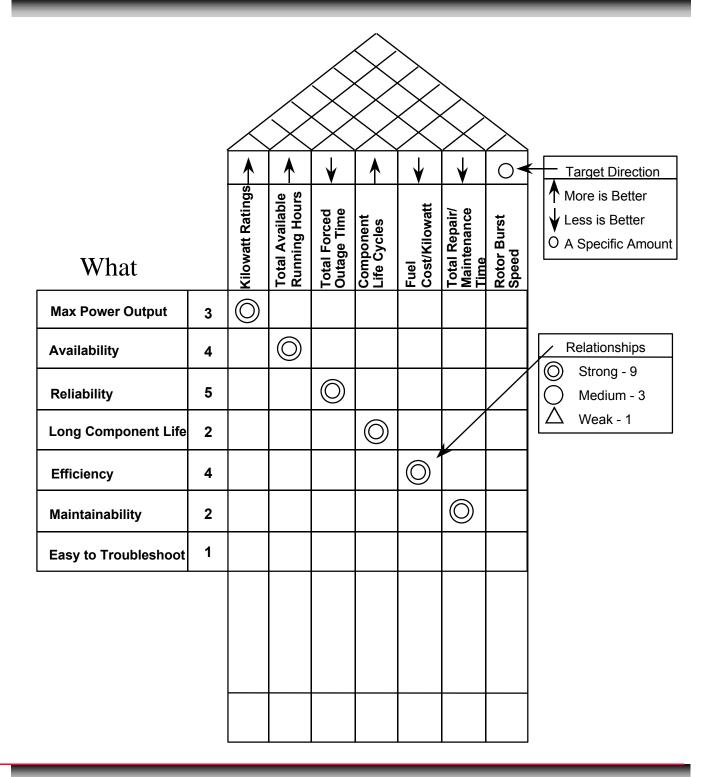
Translating for Action



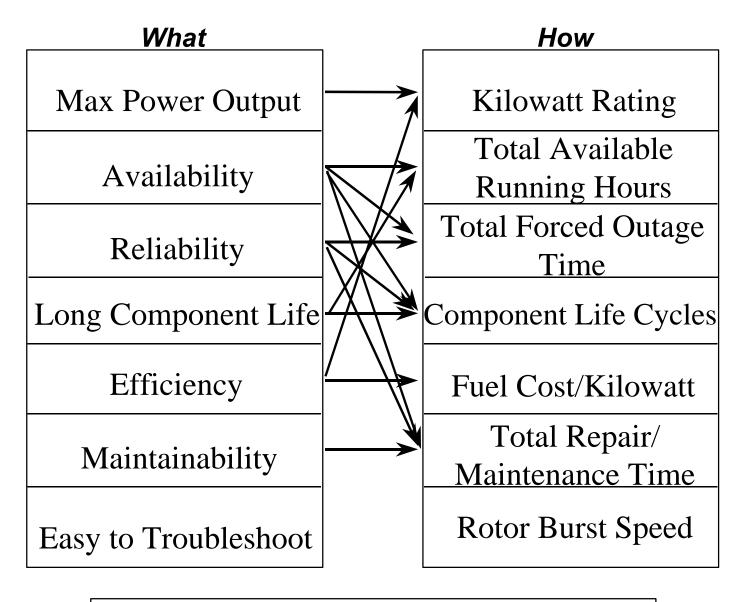
<u>Danger</u>: There is not necessarily a one-to-one relationship



How Do You Satisfy the Wants?



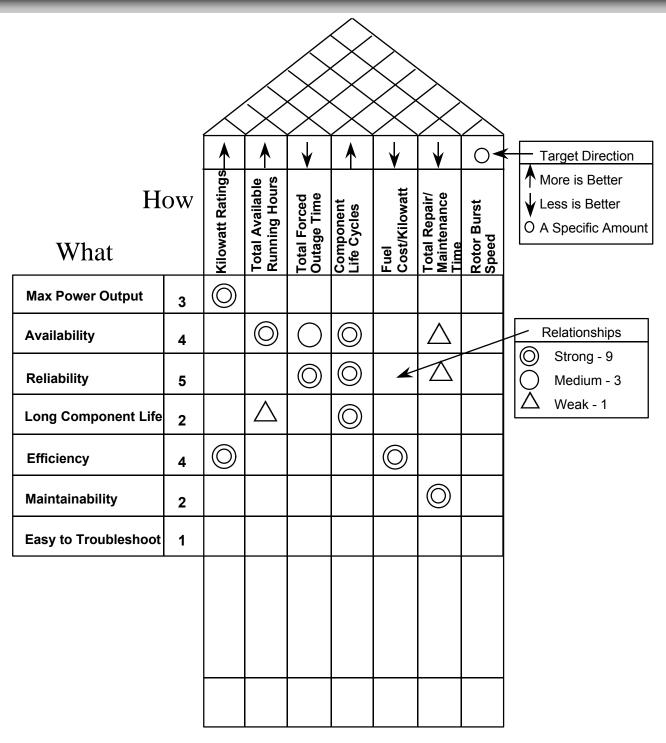
Complex Relationships



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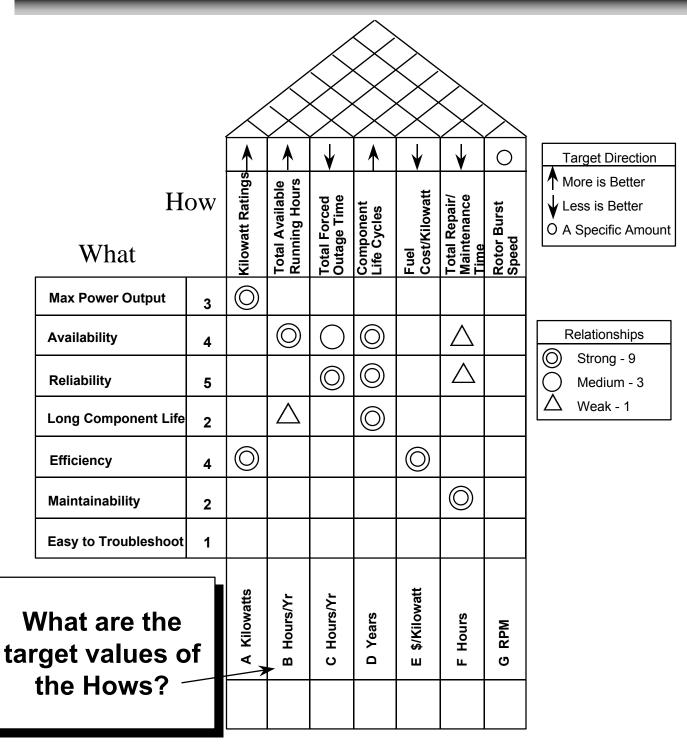
There are usually interrelationships with no single solution

Untangling the Web



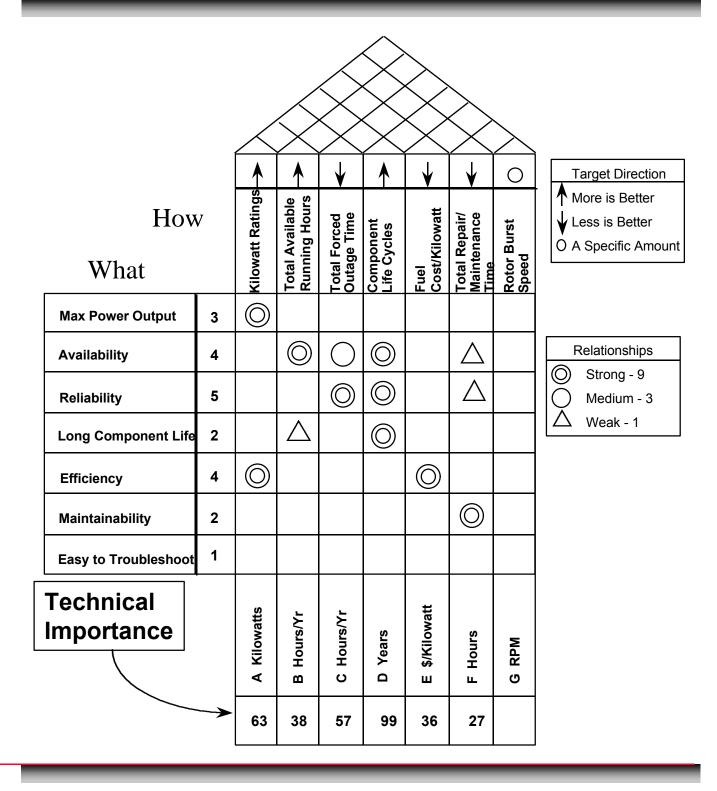
96)

How Much?



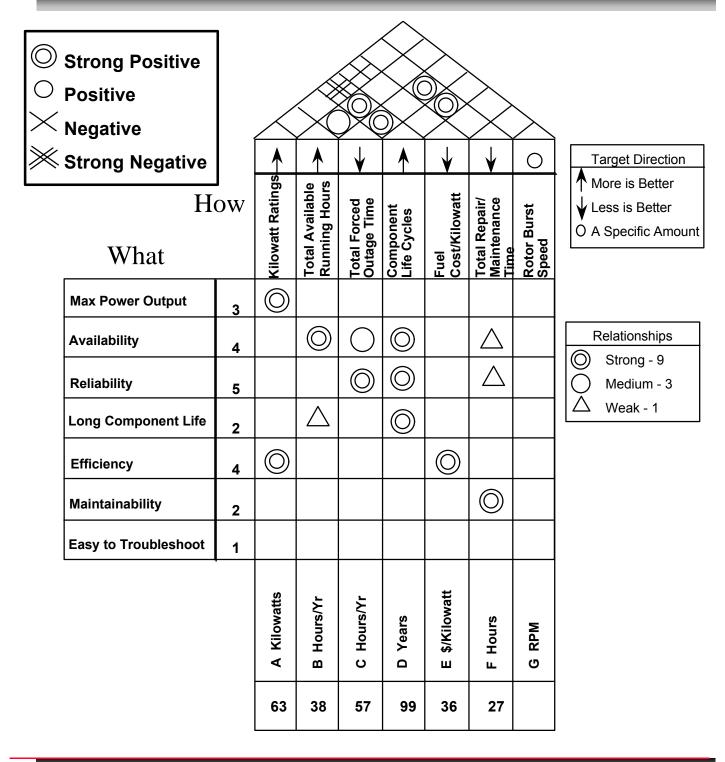


How Important are the Customer Wants?





Correlation Matrix





Analyzing & Diagnosing the QFD

- 1. Blank rows
- 2. Blank columns
- 3. No design constraints in hows
- 4. Resolve negative correlations
- 5. Finalize target values
- 6. What technical requirements should be deployed to phase II (Design Deployment)?

Building a House of Quality

96)

A Transactional Quality Example

QFD...Begin With the Customer

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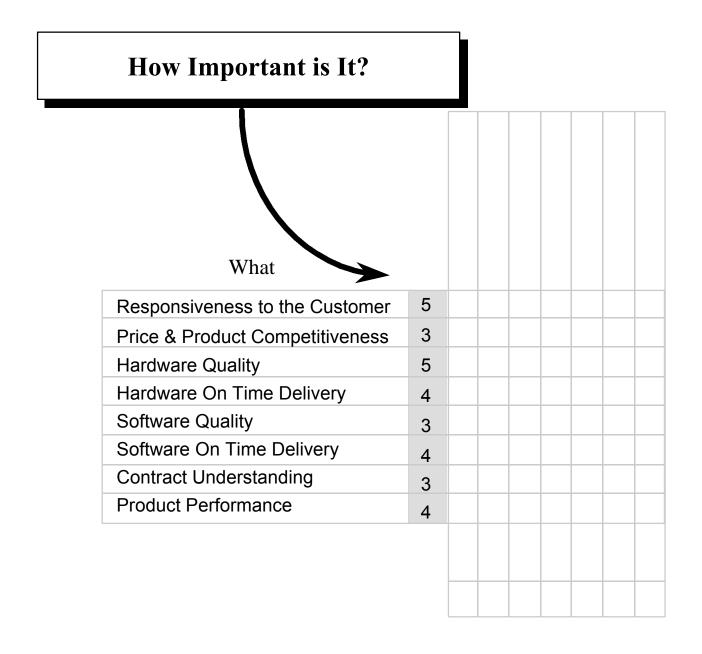
What Does the Customer Want?

What	
Responsiveness to the Custo	omer
Price & Product Competitive	ness
Hardware Quality	
Hardware On Time Delivery	
Software Quality	
Software On Time Delivery	
Contract Understanding	
Product Performance	

 $\overline{}$

Begin With the Customer

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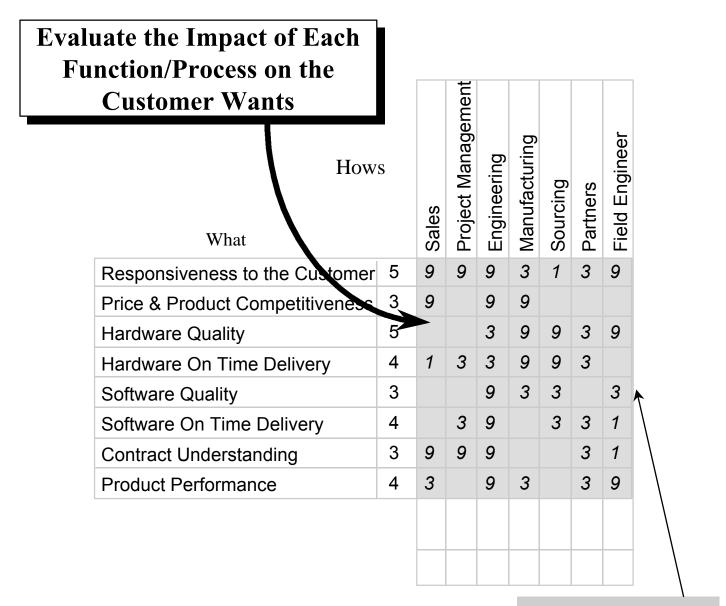
Translating Whats to Hows

Identify the Functions or Processes that Impact Customer Wants

		Sales	Project Management	Engineering	Manufacturing	Sourcing	Partners	Field Engineer
Responsiveness to the Customer	5							
Price & Product Competitiveness	3							
Hardware Quality	5							
Hardware On Time Delivery	4							
Software Quality	3							
Software On Time Delivery	4							
Contract Understanding	3							
Product Performance	4							

96)

The Relationship Between What & How



96)

Relationships

Direct & Strong	=	9
Direct	=	3
Indirect	=	1

Qualifying Importance

Function	S	Sales	Project Management	Engineering	Manufacturing	Sourcing	Partners	Field Engineer
Responsiveness to the Customer	5	9	9	9	3	1	3	9
Price & Product Competitiveness	3	9		9	9			
Hardware Quality	5			3	9	9	3	9
Hardware On Time Delivery	4	1	3	3	9	9	3	
Software Quality	3			9	3	3		3
Software On Time Delivery	4		3	9		3	3	1
Contract Understanding	3	9	9	9			3	1
Product Performance	4	3		9	3		3	9

Calculate the overall magnitude of the impact each function/process has on the customer wants



115 96 <mark>225 144</mark> 107

75 <mark>142</mark>

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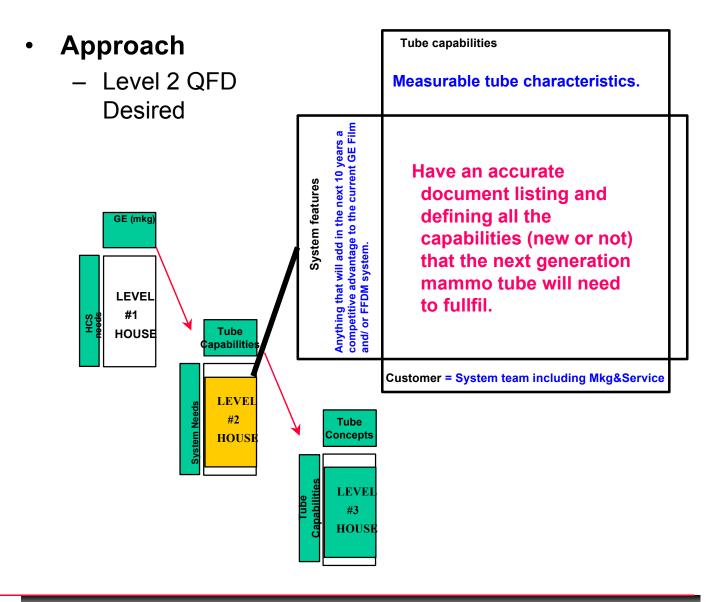
Select CTQ Characteristics

GEMS Tube Example - optional

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Project Goal

Develop QFD to Identify
 Capabilities of the Next
 Generation Mammo Tube

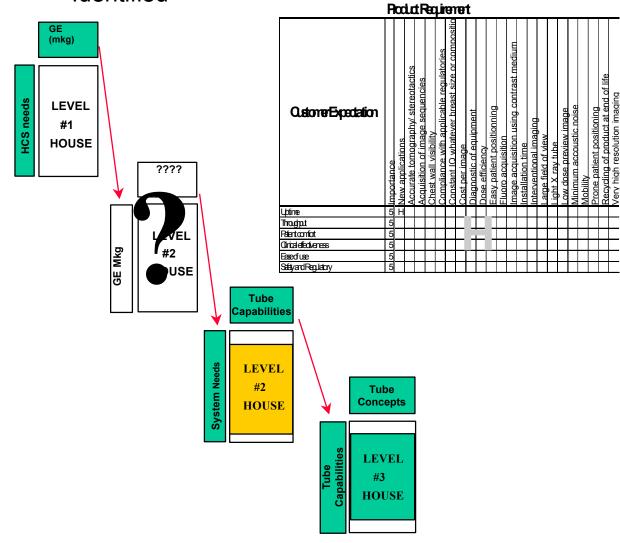


• After First Day

- Level 1 Strawman -- Needs
 Verification
- Possible Missing House
 Identified

NewnarmodatformQPD Reduct F

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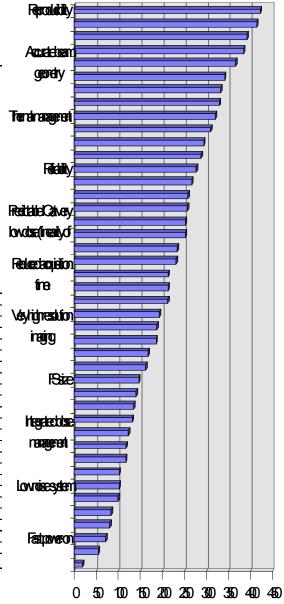
GEMS Tube Example

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Level 2 House

Customer Importance Levels Set By Dots Voting Method

	Tu	be	ret	atec	ls	/st	m	fea	tur	es												
ProductRequirement	Importance	Reproducibility	Increase SID	Stable operation	Short exposure time	Accurate beam geometry	Reduced tube head	Easy image quality check	AOP	Thermal management	No Blurring	Homogeneity of detectability, over field of view	No exposure abort	Reliability	No Artifact	X ray beam Spectrum	Compensating filter	Predictable IQ at very low dose (linearity of dose VS mAs)	Reduced access time	Vibration	Light and Collimator integrated to tube	Reduced acquisition time
Newapplications	0	_							-							, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		_		-		
Accurate tomography/stereotactics	5	н	н	Μ	Н	Н	Н	Μ	Н	Н	н	Н	Н		Н	Н		Н	н	Н		\neg
Acquistion of image sequencies	3	Н		Н	Н					Н			Н	Н				Μ	Н	L		М
Chest wal visibility	5	Н	Н	Н	Μ	Н	Н	Н				Н							Μ		Н	М
Compliance with applicable regulatories	1	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н		Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н			Н			Н
Constant IQ whatever breast size or composition	5	Н		Н	Н	Μ	L	Μ	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Μ	Μ		Н
Costperimage	2																					
Degnostcofequipment	1	М		Μ				Н	Н					L			Μ			Μ	Н	
Doseeficiency	4	Н	Н	Н	Н	Μ		Н	Н	Н	Μ	Μ	Н	Μ	Μ	Н	Н	Н			М	L
Easy patient positionning	5		Н			Μ	Н														Н	
Fluoro acquisiton	3	Н	Н	Н	Н		Н	Н	Н	Н			Н	Н		Н	Н	Н	Н	Н		Н
Image acquisition using contrast medium	4	Н	Μ	Н	Н			Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Μ	Н	Н	Μ		Н
Installation time	3	Н		Н	Μ	Н	Μ	Н	Н				Μ		Н		Н				Н	
Interventional imaging	4	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Μ	Н	Н	Н	Μ	Н	Н	Н	Н	Μ	Н	Н	Μ		Н
Large field of view	5		Н		Н	Н	Н	Μ			Н	Н			Н		Н				Н	
LightXraytube	1		Μ			Н	Н			Н										Н	Μ	
Lowdosepreviewimage	2	Н		Н				Н	Н				Н	Н				Н	Н			Н
Mhimumaccusticnoise	3	Н	L	Н	Μ		L				Μ			Н					Μ	Н		М
Mability	4	н	Н	Н		Н	Н	Н	Н	Н				Н	Μ		Н			Н	Н	
Prone patient positioning	3		н			н	Н	Н		М	н											\neg
Recycling of product at end of life	1						Н							Μ		Н	Н				Н	
Veryhigh resolution imaging	5	L	Η	L	Η	Η		L	L	L	Η	Η				Μ	L		Μ	Н		L
Total		422	414	392	384	366	341	332	329	320	309	294	288	277	267	258	257	252	252	234	231	213

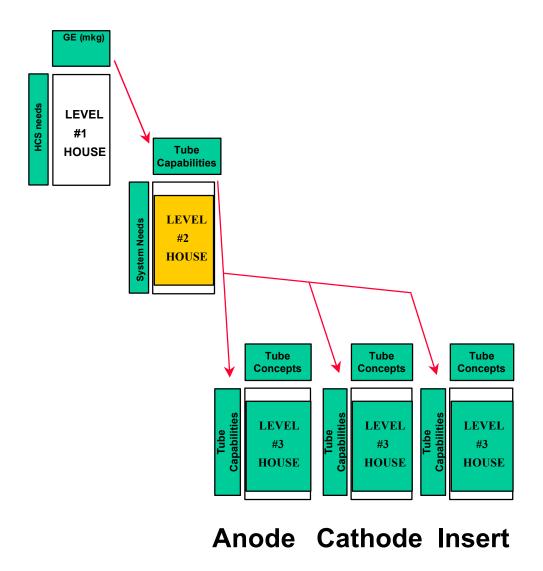


GEMS Tube Example

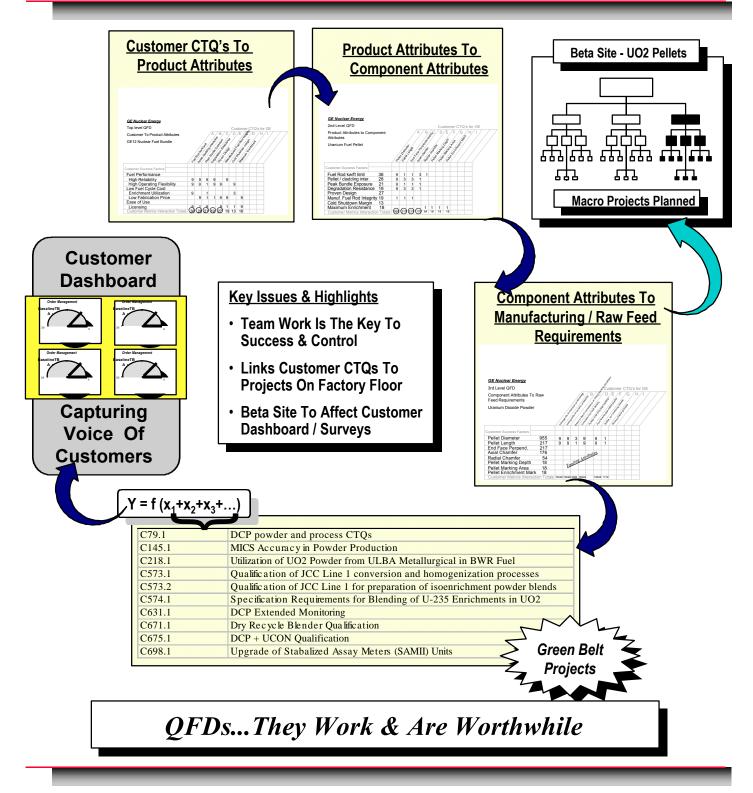
96)

Level 3 House

- Identified Need To Subdivide



Multiple House QFDs Evolve into Beta Site

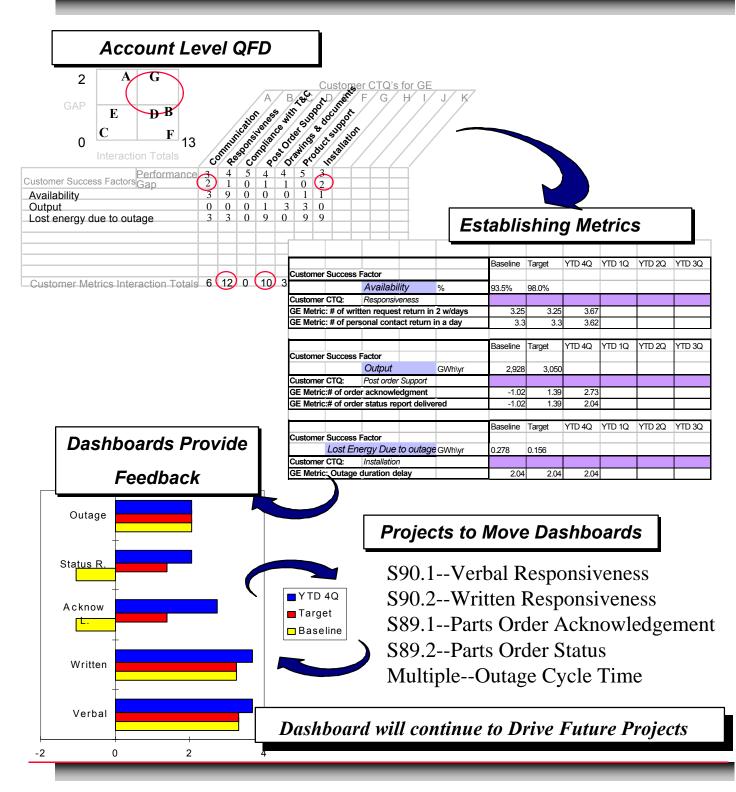


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Select CTQ Characteristics

QFDs Drive Customer Dashboards & Projects

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COMMON QFD PITFALLS

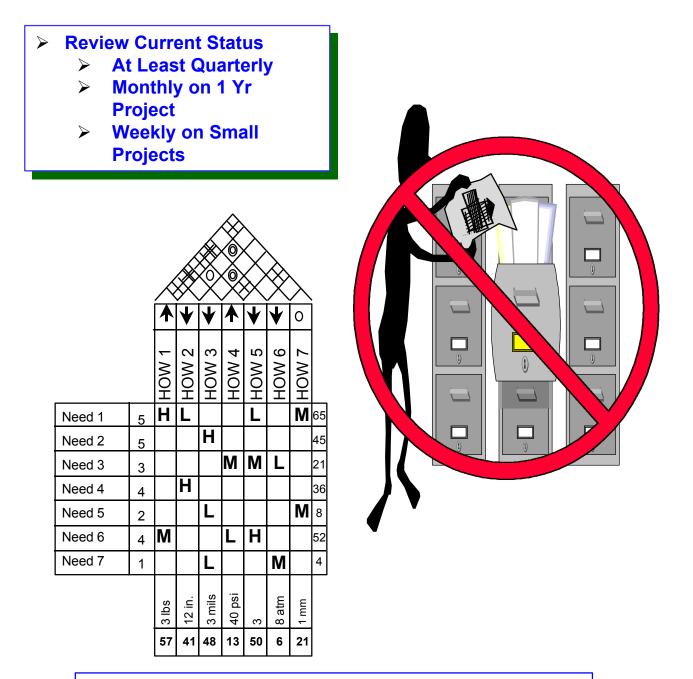
QFD On Everything

• Set the "Right" Granularity

%

- Don't Apply To Every Last
 Project
- Inadequate Priorities
- Lack of Teamwork
 - Wrong Participants
 - Lack of Team Skills
 - Lack of Support or Commitment
- Too Much "Chart Focus"
- "Hurry up and Get Done"
- Failure to Integrate and Implement QFD





98)

QFD IS A VALUABLE MANAGEMENT TOOL



Points to Remember

- The process may look simple, but requires effort.
- Many of the entries look obvious—after they are written down.
- If there aren't some "tough spots" the first time, it probably isn't being done right!
- Focus on the end-user customer.
- Charts are not the objective.
- Charts are the means for achieving the objective.
- Find reasons to succeed, not excuses for failure.
- QFD is a Valuable Decision Support Tool, Not a Decision Maker

Other QFD Applications

It is a flexible tool for focusing business resources and mitigating risk

96)

- Customer Project Specific
- Service Applications
- Business Process Analysis
- Customer Dashboards
- Proposal Strategy

96)

Understanding Processes

- Process Mapping
- Failure Modes & Effects Analysis (FMEA)

Understanding Processes Objectives

- By the end of the training program, the participant will be able to:
 - Use Process Mapping, and Failure Modes and Effects Analysis to narrow the focus of his/her project

(H)

• Understand when each of these tools are appropriate to use

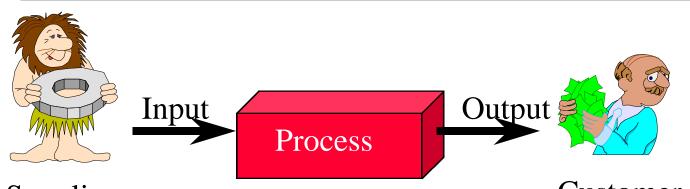


I. Process Mapping

A graphical representation of steps, events, operations, and relationships of resources within a process.



Elements of a Process



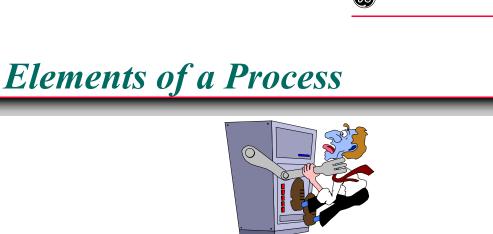
Supplier

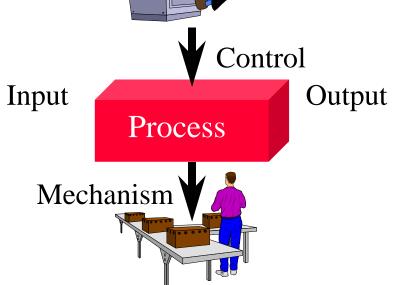
Customer

- Customer Whoever receives the output of your process.
- Output The material or data that results from the operation of a process.
- **Process** The activities you must perform to satisfy your customer's requirements.
- Input The material or data that a process does something to or with.
- Supplier Whoever provides the input to your process.

C.O.P.I.S. Focus:

Start with the customer and work backwards



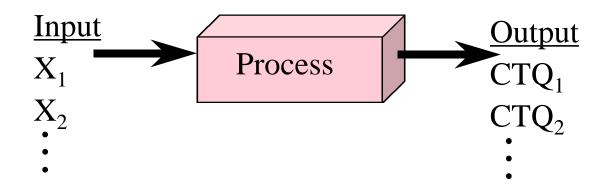


- Control The material or data that is used to tell a process what it can or should do next.
- Mechanism The resources (people, machines, etc.) that come to bear on a process to change the input to an output.
- Process Boundary The limits of the process, usually identified by the inputs, outputs and external controls that separate what is within the process from its environment.



A means of systematically diagnosing activity and information flow

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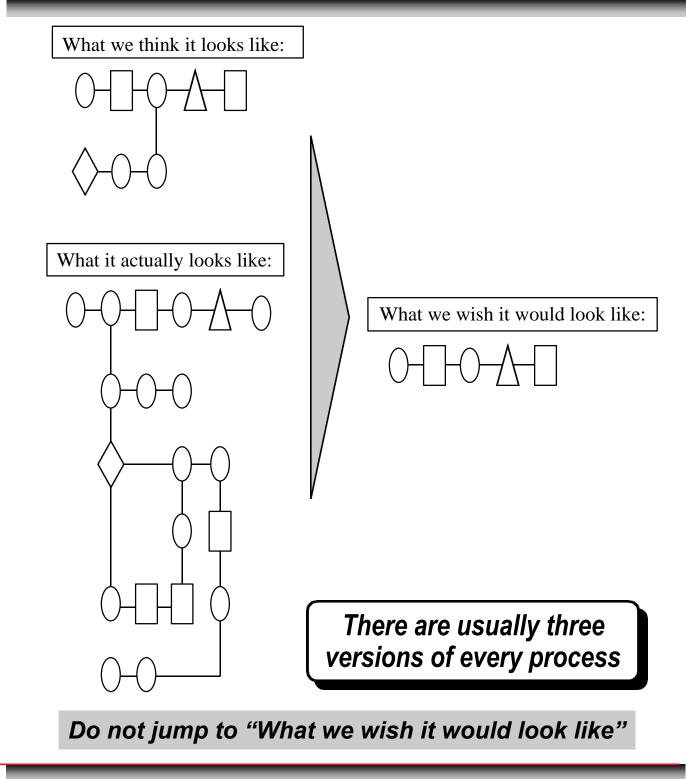
- To prepare:
 - Establish the process boundaries
 - Observe the process in operation
 - List the outputs, customers, and their key requirements
 - List the inputs, suppliers, and your key requirements

Benefits of Process Mapping

- Can reveal unnecessary, complex, and redundant steps in a process. This makes it possible to simplify & troubleshoot.
- Can compare actual processes against the ideal. You can see what went wrong and where.
- Can identify steps where additional data can be collected.



Perceptions of a Process





Determine the scope

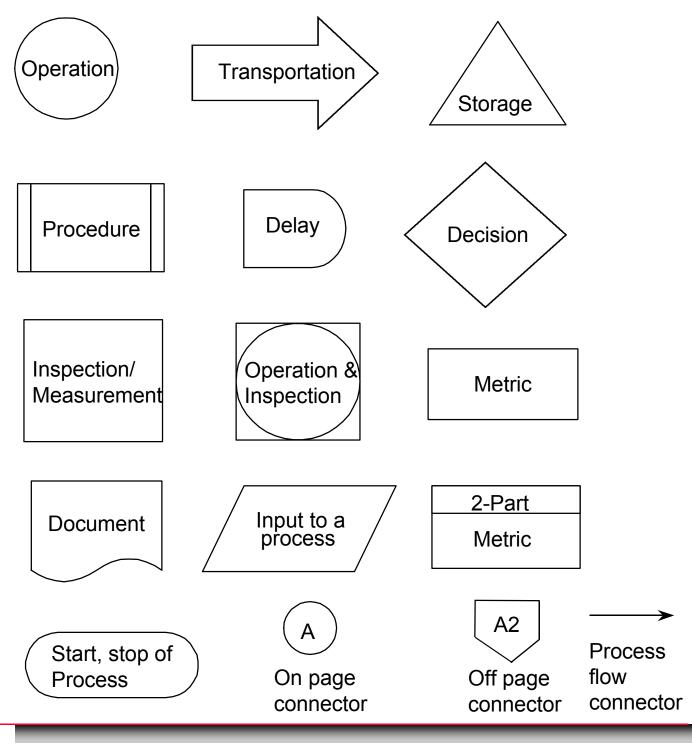
 How complex and detailed a map do you need to give you what you want?

(H)

- Determine the steps in the process
 - Don't worry about order
 - Don't worry about priorities
 - Just list them!
- Arrange the steps in order
- Assign a symbol (See next page)



Process Mapping Symbols



Process Mapping

Testing the Flow

• Are the process steps identified correctly?

(H)

- Is every feedback loop closed?
- Does every arrow have a beginning and ending point?
- Is there more than one arrow from an activity box? Perhaps it should be a diamond.
- Are all the steps covered?



Validate Process Map

Walk the Process AgainAsk the Questions

- What happens if ...?
- What could go wrong?
- Who...?
- *How...?*
- When...?
- Update Map





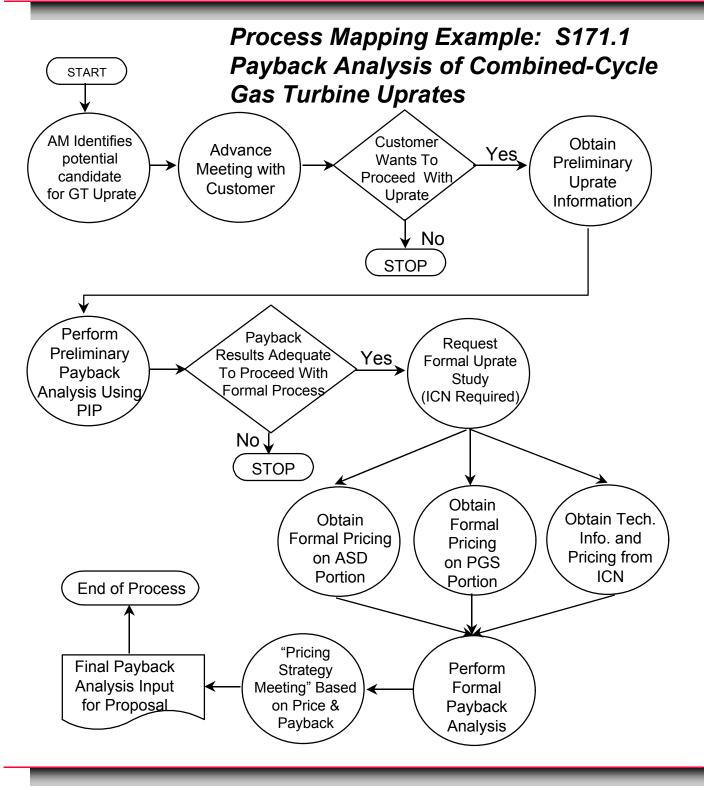
Evaluating a Process Map

- Does each step add value?
- Are controls and measurement criteria in place?
- Are "Re's" occurring?
 - Rework
 - Revise
 - Repeat
 - Review
- Is the step necessary?





Process Map Example



Process Mapping Exercise: 20 mins.

- For one or more projects in your group, construct a process map.
 - Is there unnecessary rework within the current process?

GE)

- Are there unnecessary process steps?
- Can you identify areas in your process needing improvement?



Failure Modes and Effects Analysis



To understand the use of FMEA within the context of Six Sigma methodology.

96)

To learn the steps to developing and using an FMEA.

What & How of FMEA

What is failure modes and effects analysis?

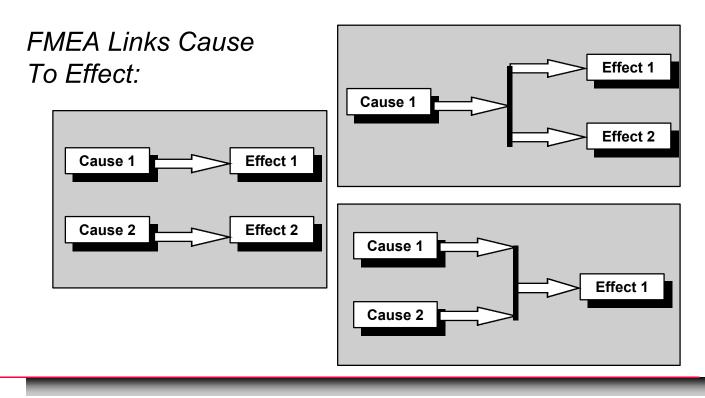
- Identify ways the product or process can fail
- Plan how to prevent those failures

How Does FMEA Work?

 Identify potential failure modes and rate the severity of their effect

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- Evaluate objectively the probability of occurrence of causes and the ability to detect the cause when it occurs
- Rank order potential product and process deficiencies
- Focus on eliminating product and process concerns and help prevent problems from occurring





Definition - FMEA

A structured approach to:

- identifying the ways in which a process can fail to meet critical customer requirements
- estimating the risk of specific causes with regard to these failures
- evaluating the current control plan for preventing these failures from occurring
- prioritizing the actions that should be taken to improve the process

Identify ways the product or process can fail. Then plan to prevent those failures.



Purposes & Benefits of FMEA

- Improves the quality, reliability, and safety of products.
- Helps to increase customer satisfaction.
- Reduces product development timing and cost.
- Documents and tracks actions taken to reduce risk.

Types of FMEA

- System FMEA: is used to analyze systems and subsystems in the early concept and design stages. Focuses on potential failure modes associated with the <u>functions</u> of a system caused by <u>design</u>.
- **Design FMEA**: is used to analyze products before they are released to production.
- **Process FMEA:** is used to analyze manufacturing, assembly and transactional processes.



Steps in the FMEA Process



FMEA Process

- 1. Select Process Team
- 2. Develop Process Map & Identify Process Steps
- List Key Process Outputs To Satisfy Internal And External Customer Requirements
- 4. List Key Process Inputs For Each Process Step
- 5. Define Matrix Relating Product Outputs To Process Variables
- 6. Rank Inputs According To Importance

- 7. List Ways Process Inputs Can Vary (*Causes*) and identify associated Failure Modes and Effects
- List Other Causes (Sources of Variability) And Associated FM&Es
- 9. Assign Severity, Occurrence And Detection Rating To Each Cause
- 10. Calculate Risk Priority Number (*RPN*) For Each Potential Failure Mode Scenario

11. Determine Recommended Actions To Reduce RPNs

Improvement

- 12. Establish Timeframes For Corrective Actions
- 13. Create "Waterfall" Graph To Forecast Risk Reductions
- 14. Take Appropriate Actions
- 15. Re-calculate All RPNs
- 16. Put controls into place

	Failure Modes and Effects Analysis (FMEA)												
Process or Product Name:]							
Responsible:]				
Process Step/Part Number	Potential Failure Mode	Potential Failure Effects	S E V	Potential Causes	0 0 0 0	Current Controls	D E T	R P N	Actions Recommended	Resp.			
											Π		
											Π		



Definition of Terms

Failure Mode

- The manner in which a part or process can fail to meet specification
- Usually associated with a **Defect** or nonconformance

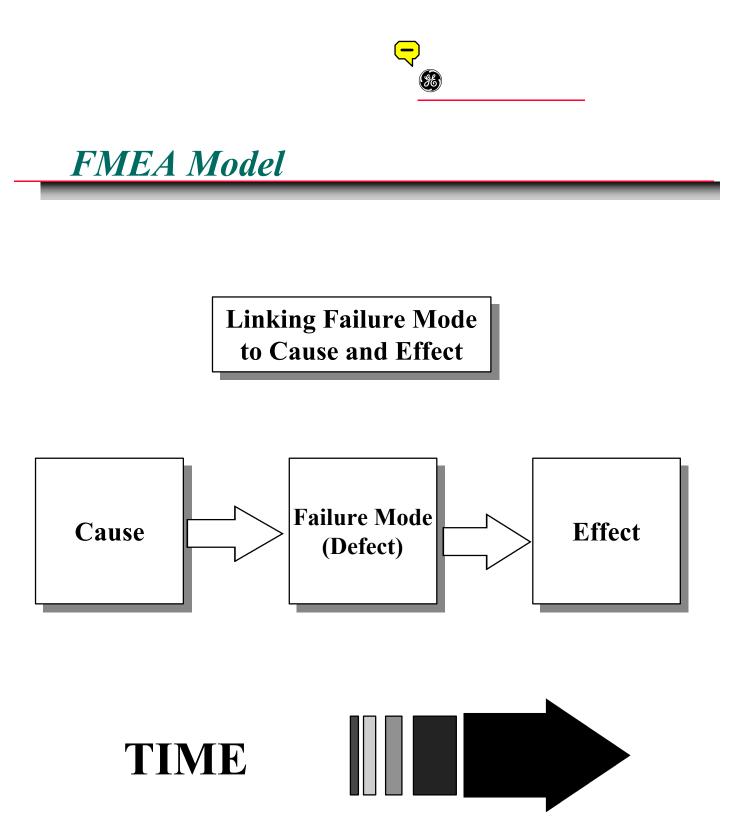
Cause

- A deficiency that results in a Failure Mode
- Causes are sources of Variability associated with Key Process Input Variables

Effect

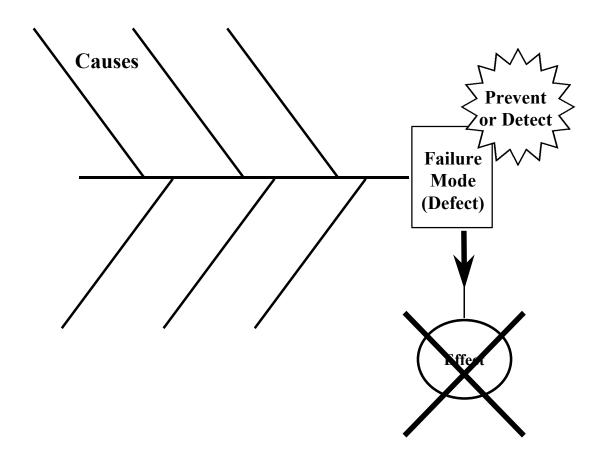
- Impact on Customer if Failure Mode is not prevented or corrected
- Customer can be downstream or the ultimate customer

The Failure Mode can be thought of as the "in-process" defect, whereas an Effect is the impact on the customer requirements.



Failure Mode Fishbone Model

Goal of FMEA





FMEA Calculations

Risk Ratings:

Scale: 1 (Best) to 10 (Worst)

Severity (SEV)

How significant is the impact of the **Effect** to the customer (internal or external)?

<u>Occurrence (OCC)</u>

How likely is the **Cause** of the Failure Mode to occur?

Detection (DET)

How likely will the current system detect the **Cause or Failure Mode** if it occurs?

Risk Priority Number:

- A numerical calculation of the relative risk of a particular Failure Mode.
- RPN = SEV x OCC x DET
- This number is used to place priority on which items need additional quality planning.



Standardization of Ratings

RATING	DEGREE OF SEVERITY	LIKELIHOOD OF OCCURRENCE	ABILITY TO DETECT
1	Customer will not notice the adverse effect or it is insignificant	Likelihood of occurrence is remote	Sure that the potential failure will be found or prevented before reaching the next customer
2	Customer will probably experience slight annoyance	Low failure rate with supporting documentation	Almost certain that the potential failure will be found or prevented before reaching the next customer
3	Customer will experience annoyance due to the slight degradation of performance	Low failure rate without supporting documentation	Low likelihood that the potential failure will reach the next customer undetected
4	Customer dissatisfaction due to reduced performance	Occasional failures	Controls may detect or prevent the potential failure from reaching the next customer
5	Customer is made uncomfortable or their productivity is reduced by the continued degradation of the effect	Relatively moderate failure rate with supporting documentation	Moderate likelihood that the potential failure will reach the next customer
6	Warranty repair or significant manufacturing or assembly complaint	Moderate failure rate without supporting documentation	Controls are unlikely to detect or prevent the potential failure from reaching the next customer
7	High degree of customer dissatisfaction due to component failure without complete loss of function. Productivity impacted by high scrap or rework levels.	Relatively high failure rate with supporting documentation	Poor likelihood that the potential failure will be detected or prevented before reaching the next customer
8	Very high degree of dissatisfaction due to the loss of function without a negative impact on safety or governmental regulations	High failure rate without supporting documentation	Very poor likelihood that the potential failure will be detected or prevented before reaching the next customer
9	Customer endangered due to the adverse effect on safe system performance with warning before failure or violation of governmental regulations	Failure is almost certain based on warranty data or significant DV testing	Current controls probably will not even detect the potential failure
10	Customer endangered due to the adverse effect on safe system performance without warning before failure or violation of governmental regulations	Assured of failure based on warranty data or significant DV testing	Absolute certainty that the current controls will not detect the potential failure

Numerical Ratings Analyzing Risk Potential

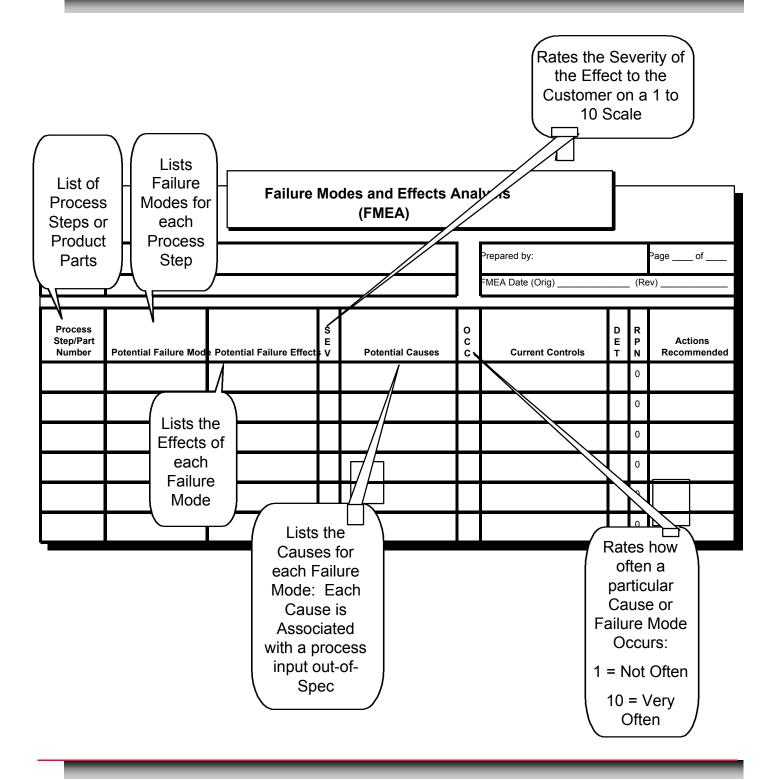
Numerical Ranking	OCCURRENCE Likelihood	DETECTION Certainty
1	1 in 10 ⁶	100%
2	1 in 20,000	99%
3	1 in 5,000	95%
4	1 in 2,000	90%
5	1 in 500	85%
6	1 in 100	80%
7	1 in 50	70%
8	1 in 20	60%
9	1 in 10	50%
10	1 in 2	<50%

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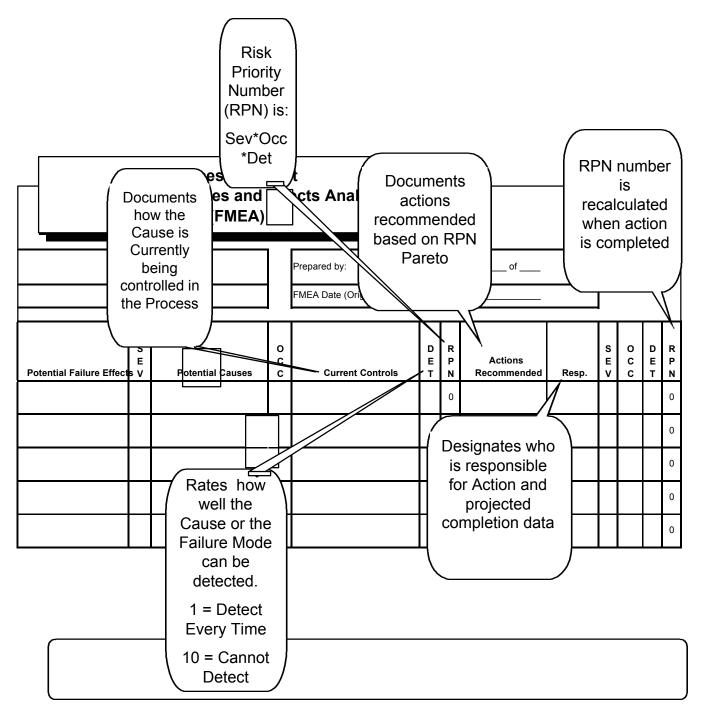
Capability link into FMEA



FMEA Form



FMEA Form (cont.)



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An Improvement Plan is required when the RPN number exceeds 120.

Failure Modes and Effects Analysis

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Reducing Rotor Blasting Process Time B3095.1

Process/Product Failure Modes and Effects Analysis (FMEA)

Process or Product Name	REDUCTION IN NDT PREP TIME ON GT COMPRESSOR ROTORS	Prepared by: STALEY EDWARDS
Responsible:	STALEY EDWARDS	FMEA Date (Orig) JUNE , 25, 1998 (Rev) _

Process Step/Part Number	Potential Failure Mode	Potential Failure Effects	S E V	Potential Causes	000	Current Controls	D E T	R P N
PREP FOR BLAST		BLAST MEDIA GETS IN BETWEEN ROTOR WHEEL	8	WORKMANSHIP / MATERIAL	~	PLANNING ROUTER AND VISUAL	2	32
**BLAST CLEAN		BLAST MEDIA GETS IN BETWEEN ROTOR WHEEL	8	MATERIAL / OVERBLASTING	3	VISUAL INSPECTION DURING BLAST PROCESS	3	72
**PREP FOR NDT	TAPE RESIDUE ON WHEELS	EXCESSIVE HOURS TO CLEAN FOR NDT	7	MATERIAL / OVERBLASTING	9	NONE	10	630
NDT		POSSIBLILTY OF NOT SEEING RELATIVE INDICATIONS DURING NDT		BLASTING , CLEANING AND MATERIAL		MANUAL CLEANING PRIOR TO NDT	3	60

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When is an FMEA Started?

- When new systems, products, and processes are being designed.
- When existing designs or processes are being changed.
- When carryover designs/processes will be used in new applications, or new environments.
- After completing a Problem Solving Study (to prevent recurrence of problem).
- For a System FMEA, after System functions are defined, but before specific hardware is selected.
- For a Design FMEA, after product functions are defined, but before the design is approved and released to manufacturing.
- For a Process FMEA, when preliminary drawings of the product are available.

Who Prepares an FMEA?

The team approach to preparing FMEAs is recommended.

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- The responsible system or product leads the FMEA team.
- The responsible design is expected to involve representatives from all affected activities. Team members should include design, manufacturing, assembly, quality, reliability, service, purchasing, testing, supplier, and other subject matter experts as appropriate.

When is an FMEA Updated?

Whenever a change is being considered to a product's design, application, environment, material, or to any process.

Who Updates an FMEA?

The individual responsible for the system or product is responsible for keeping the FMEA up to date.

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Suppliers keep their own FMEAs up to date.

When is a FMEA Completed?

- A Design FMEA is considered completed when the design is released for production.
- A Process FMEA is never completed unless the process is removed from the product line.

FMEA Exercise: 20 mins.

For one or more projects on your team, construct an FMEA to identify possible areas of improvement for your process.

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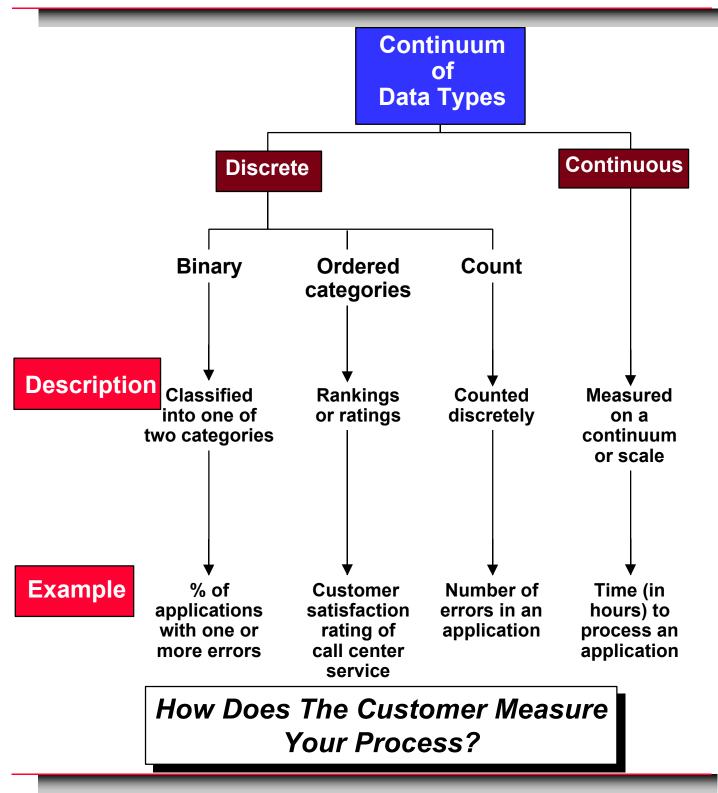
- Is there one or more potential vital Xs that can be identified?
- What if any, are possible improvement actions to mitigate the failure mode?

Data Types Objective

Extend the concept of data type beyond continuous vs. discrete and understand examples of each of four data types.



Overview: Types Of Data





Why Is Type Of Data Important?

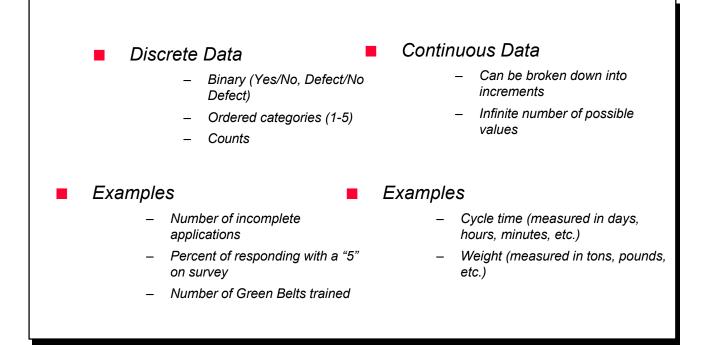
-Choice of data display and analysis tools -Amount of data required: continuous data often requires a smaller sample size than discrete data -Information about current and historical process performance

Use Continuous Data Whenever Possible



Types Of Data





Discrete		ically Discret analyzed as	Continuous			
Binary (Y/N)	Ordered Categories (Limited options, i.e., 1-15)	Count Data (Limited possibilities)	Ordered Categories (Many options, i.e., 1-100)	Count Data (Many possibilities)	Cycle Time	

Importance Of Data Type

Sometimes we have choices. When we do, we should choose continuous data

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Project Y	Discrete Y Measure	Continuous Y Measure
Time to process	% within specifications	Actual times for each unit
Delivery time	Number late	Actual time deviated from target
Customer satisfaction	Yes/no questions	Rating 1-100
Policies lost due to price	Number lost	Difference from competition

The More Continuous We Can Make The Data, The More It Will Tell Us About Our Process



Point of this exercise is to calculate Z two ways:
1) any score over par is a defect - use discrete DPMO
2) take mean & std deviation and calculate Z using continuous method

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Points to make:

Two golfers have same Z using discrete method, but different using continuous. Why?

What woulld happen if one of the scores changed by one stroke so it changes from defect to not (or the other way around).

Z using discrete method would make quantum change - Z using continuous measures in smaller increments.



Class Exercise

Calculate the following for your assigned golfer: Mode Mean Median Standard Deviation Z _{calculated} = (USL - MEAN)/s P(defect) ((# of scores > USL)/# of scores)										
Z _{table} (look up	Z _{table} (look up using the P(defect)) Wh ^o is the better golfer? Wh ^o is the USL=72									
		, is th	e berre							
	W	Note	e: USL	=72						
	Scot	Serge	Bill	Bob						
	62	73	69	73						
	65	69	61	67						
	71	70	68	67						
	76	70	77	67						
	62	67	76	73						
	6 6	72	69	75						
	67	70	64	71						
	67	68	61	72						
	62	71	65	68						
	73	69	69	68						

Select CTQ Characteristics

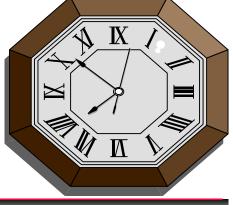
Defect Counting Exercise (discrete and continuous)

Just a good exercise after teaching discrete and continuous to reinforce the concepts.

Another example, tying it all together:

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- 20 weeks worth of Master Black belt weekly time sheets are attached.
- Develop an L1 spreadsheet for the possible defects as shown on the next page. Pay close attention to opportunities.
- Which line item might be a good Black Belt project?
- Are any of these defects continuous?
- Use Minitab where applicable to determine Z_{shift}.
- Do the MBB's have a problem with control or with technology?



The Inspection Sheet

Define the defect, unit, and opportunity for each characteristic:

Characteristic: FW Defect: Missing FW Unit: Opportunity:	_
Characteristic: Hours Defect: Missing Hours Unit: Opportunity:	
Characteristic: Hours Defect: Hours out of Spec Unit: Opportunity:	
Characteristic: Entry In Box Defect: Entry Not In Box Unit: Opportunity:	_
Characteristic: Signature Defect: Missing Signature Unit: Opportunity:	_
	_

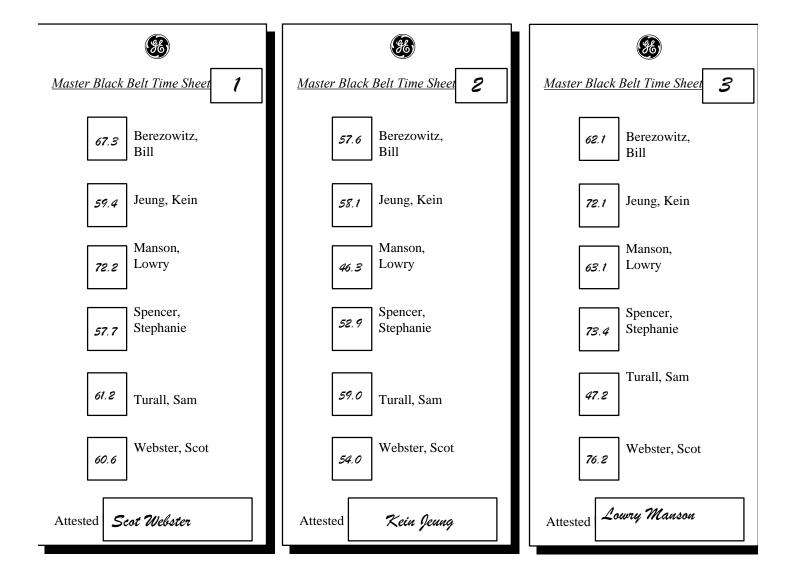
(hours spec is 40 to 70)

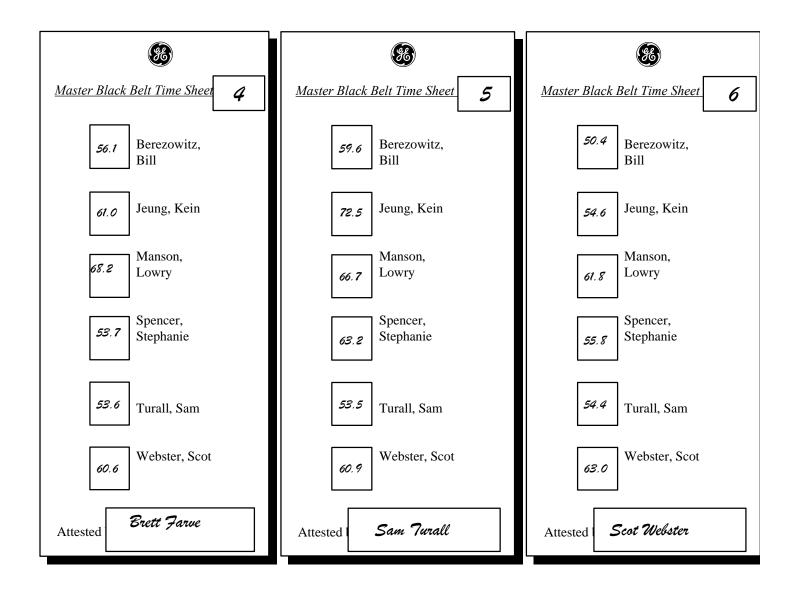
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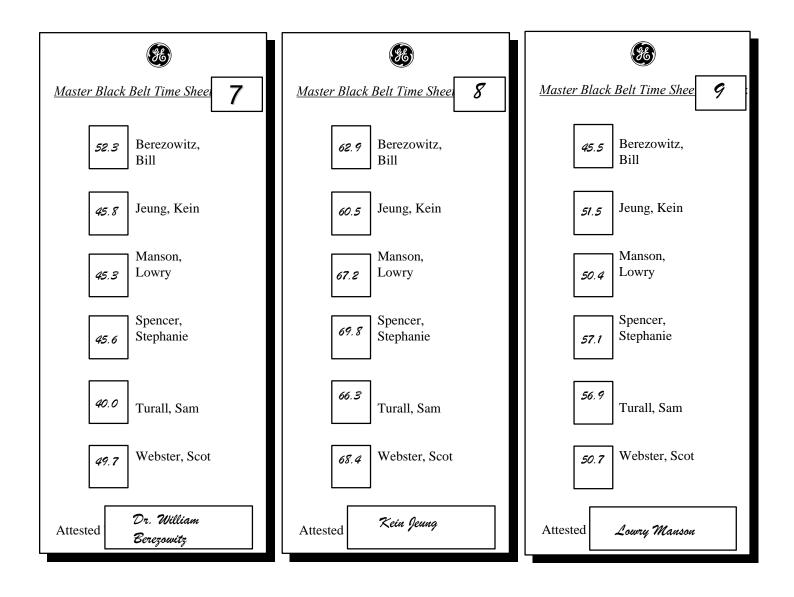
Characteristic	D	U	OP	ТОР	D/TOP	DPMO	Shift	Z.B
missing FW							1.50	
missing hours							1.50	
entry not in box							1.50	
missing signature							1.50	
hours out of spec							1.50	
other?							1.50	
Total							1.50	

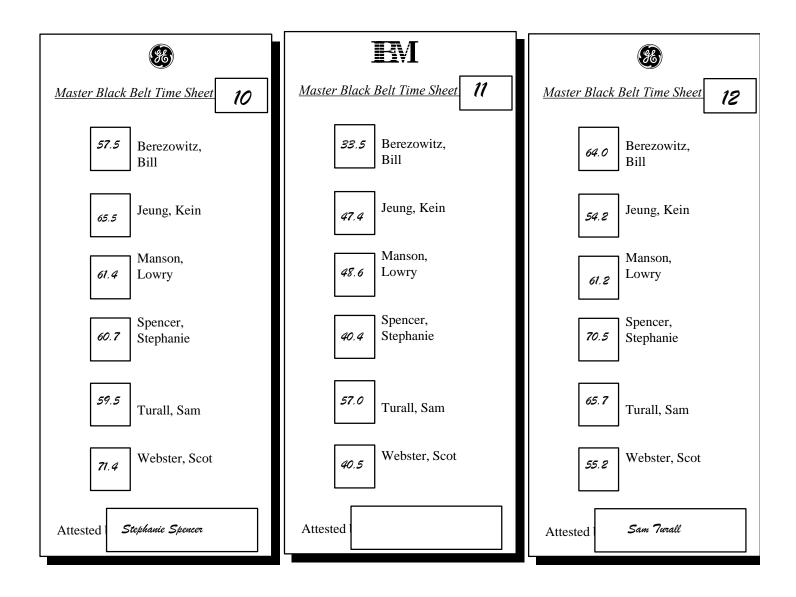
Select CTQ Characteristics

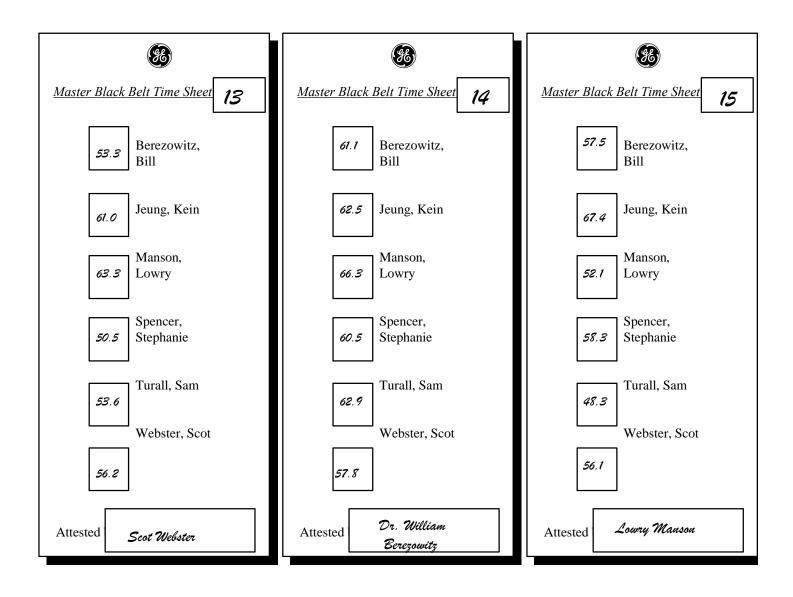




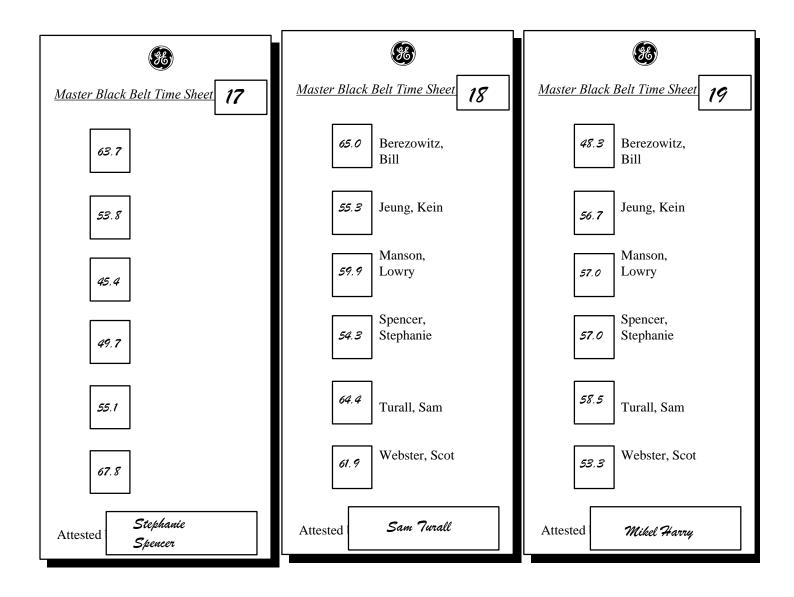






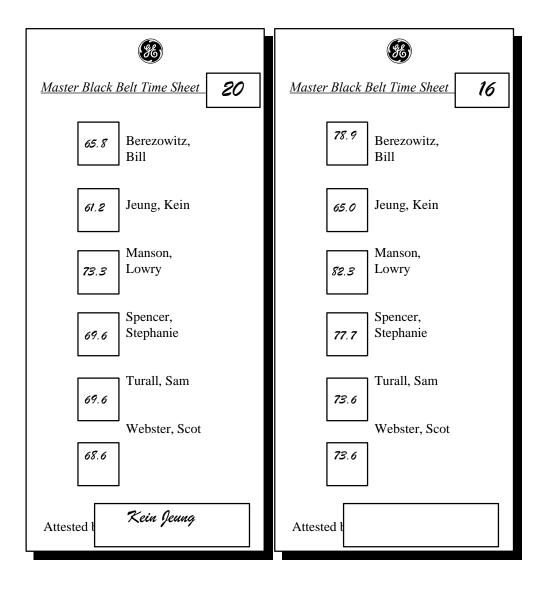


Example



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Example



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Step 1: Select CTQ Characteristic Tool Summary

QFD

- Select CTQ; narrow project focus
- Step: 1

Process Mapping

 Understand process steps; narrow project focus

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• Steps: 1, 6, Improve Phase

FMEA

- Identify and prevent failures; narrow project focus
- Steps: 1, 6, 12

Take Aways—Step 1

A Quality Function Deployment (QFD) translates customer needs into detailed process/product requirements.

- The QFD assists in narrowing the focus of the project by prioritizing actions according to their impact on the customer.
- The QFD is a matrix which relates the customer wants (CTQs) to how we might satisfy those wants.
 - Each **how** is rated highly if it has a strong chance of satisfying a **want**
 - We multiply the how rating times the importance rating of the want to get the **priority** of the action.

Take Aways—Step 1

- A process map is a graphical representation of steps, events, operations, and relationships of resources in a process.
 - used to identify potential breakdowns, rework loops, and sources of variation in a process

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An FMEA is used to identify the potential failure modes of a process or product

- *identifies ways a product or process can fail and the effects of these failures*
- rates the severity of the failures
- rates the ability to detect the failures
- quantifies the likelihood of the failures
- prioritizes activities to mitigate or prevent the failures from occurring



Review of Terms:

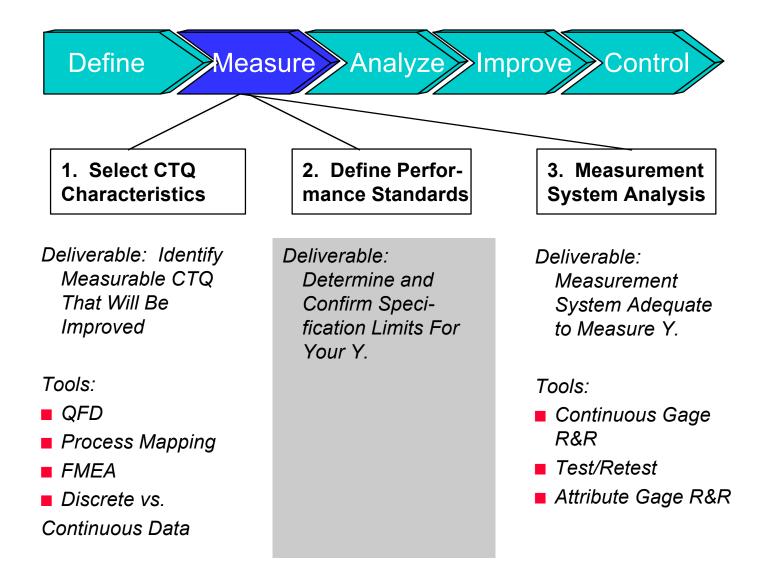
- Cause deficiency that results in a failure mode
- Failure Mode the manner in which a part or process can fail to meet specification

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• Effect - the impact on the customer if the failure mode is not prevented or corrected



Measure Phase



Define Performance Standards Objectives

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Step 2: Define Performance Standards

By the end of Step 2, the BB/GB will have:

a. Defined a defect.

What are the customer's acceptance criteria for the part/product or process?

b. Established how to measure the quality of the part/product or process.

Where are the data coming from?

How do you measure the process?

What are the units of measure?

Is it a discrete or continuous measure?

- c. Determined the Performance Standard for their project.
- d. Gained consensus with their team on the Performance Standard for their project.



Performance Standards

A **Performance Standard** is the requirement(s) or specification(s) imposed by the customer on a specific CTQ.

It answers the questions:

What does the customer want?

What is a good product/process?

What is a defect?

Some examples:

Blueprints

 Sizes and dimensions are provided on parts

Contracts

 Type of turbine, fuel efficiency, time of delivery, warranty information

Define Performance Standards

Establishing a Performance Standard

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- The goal of a performance standard is to translate the customer need into a measurable characteristic.
 - Operational Definition
 - Target
 - Specification Limits
 - Defect Definition
- A characteristic should be measurable.
- Translate the Voice of the Customer to the Voice of the Process.



Operational Definitions

Definition:

 An operational definition is a precise description that tells how to get a value for the characteristic (CTQ) you are trying to measure. It includes "What Something Is" and "How to Measure It"

Purpose:

- To Remove Ambiguity so that Everyone has the same understanding
- To provide a clear way to measure the characteristic
 - Identifies what to measure
 - Identifies how to measure it
 - Makes sure that no matter who does the measuring, the results are essentially the same
 - Must be useful to both you and the customer

At a Minimum— A Clear Definition of a Defect is Required

Define Performance Standards



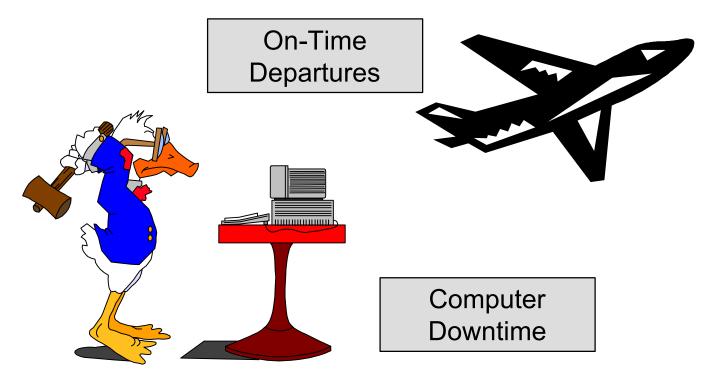
Defect - Anything that results in customer dissatisfaction. Anything that results in a nonconformance.

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Characteristic measures and defects are defined operationally.



Examples



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Work as a class or individually.

Your task

- Write operational definitions for the examples above
- Compare results if you work individually

Possible Solutions to the Exercise

On-Time Departures

An on-time departure could be one in which the door to the jetway is closed before the scheduled departure time. A passenger may think an on-time departure is one in which the plane takes off at the scheduled departure time. Both ways use a discrete measurement: on-time or late. A better way to measure departure time is to calculate the difference between the scheduled departure time and the actual departure time. An operational definition for actual departure time could be the time the door to the jetway is closed.

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Computer Downtime

Computer downtime occurs when a computer stops operating or processing during operational use. Time computer went down is based on operations log. Downtime is over when computer returns to normal operations.

Operational Definition – Partner Exercise (25 Minutes)-Optional Exercise

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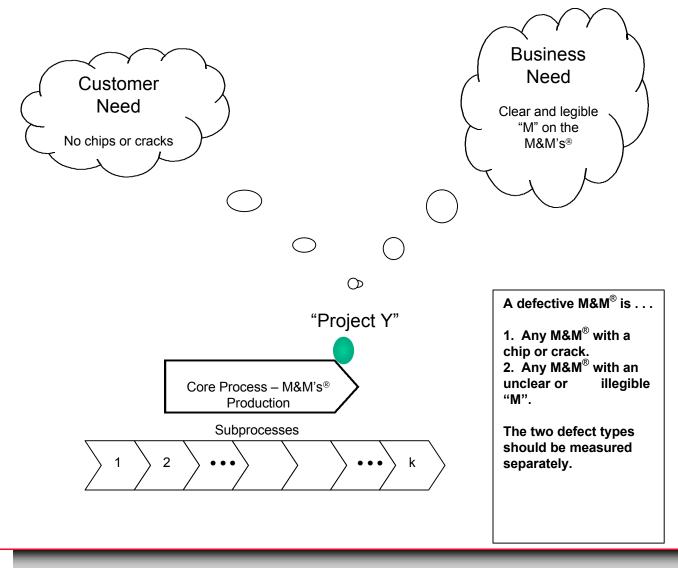
Desired Outcomes

- Practice applying operational definitions
- Collect data on the number of defects in a package of M&M's[®]

What	Ном	Who	Time
Partner Preparation	 Find a partner for the exercise. Determine timing for each activity below. Read the background information. 	All	
Develop An Operational Definition	 Develop an operational definition for one of the defect types found in an M&M, either, 1) chips and cracks, or 2) unclear and illegible "M". The definition should include: What How Importance to customer 	Partners	
Measure And Record Data	 With your partner apply your operational definition to your package of M&M's[®]. Use the form on the following page to record the total number of M&M's[®] you inspect and the number of defective M&M's[®]. Note: If an M&M has one or more chips/cracks, classify the M&M's[®] as defective. 	Partners	
Close Exercise	 Brainstorm the challenges of developing an operational definition for this exercise, and how these challenges may impact your own project work. Choose a spokesperson to report out on your operational definition, the challenges you experienced, and how these may impact your project work in the future. 	Partners	

Operational Definition – Partner Exercise (continued)

- Customers of M&M's^o candy have various needs related to the consumption of the candy. Because the candy should "... melt in your mouth, not in your hands," one of the Project Y CTQs is for the candy to have no chips or cracks.
- Part of the internal process for making the candy is printing the letter "M" on the candy. While not a high priority for external customers it is important to internal customers for marketing and product branding.



Define Performance Standards

Operational Definition – Partner Exercise (continued)

Date:

Data Collection Check Sheet Location:

Operational Definition:

Data Collector's Name	# Of Pieces Inspected	# Of Pieces Chipped Or Cracked	# Of Pieces With Unclear Or Illegible "M"

Data Summary Sheet

Data Collector's Name	# Of Pieces Inspected	% Of Pieces Chipped Or Cracked	% Of Pieces With Unclear Or Illegible "M"	% Of Pieces Defective



Operational Definition – Table Team (5 Minutes)

Define Your Project Y

Write an operational definition for your Project Y
 Write the definition on a flip chart
 Report out

Reminders for Operational Definitions

Remember to:

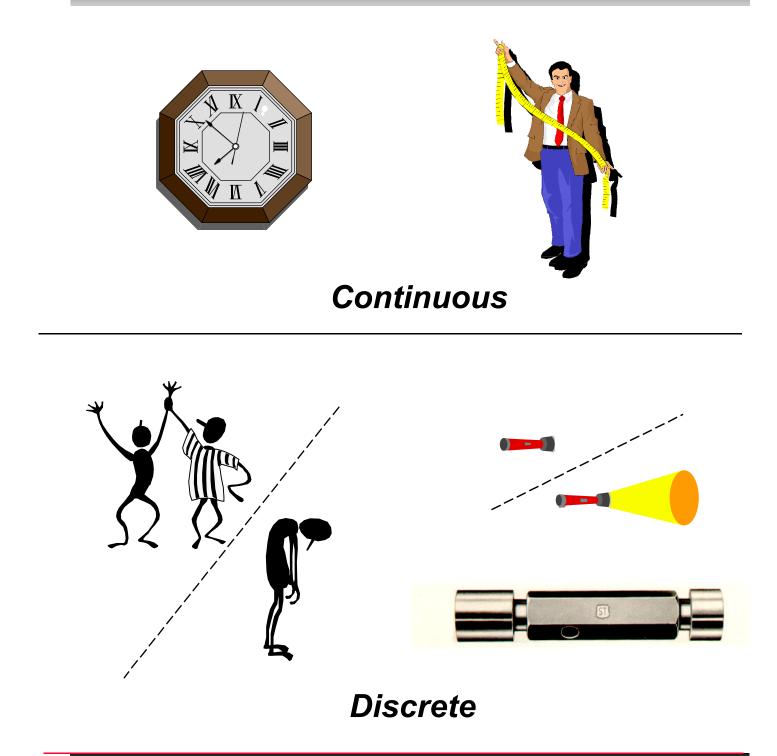
 Remove ambiguity so everyone has the same understanding of words and instructions

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- Make sure that no matter who does the measuring, the results are consistent
- Check that your definition has:
 - Specific and concrete criteria (What)
 - A method to measure (How)
 - Usefulness to both you and the customer



Continuous and Discrete Data



The Basic Nature of Data

Two kinds of data can be used for measuring process capability:

Continuous Data

 Characterizes a product or process feature in terms of its size, weight, volts, time, or currency

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- The measurement scale can be meaningfully divided into finer and finer increments of precision
- To apply the normal distribution, one must necessarily use continuous data

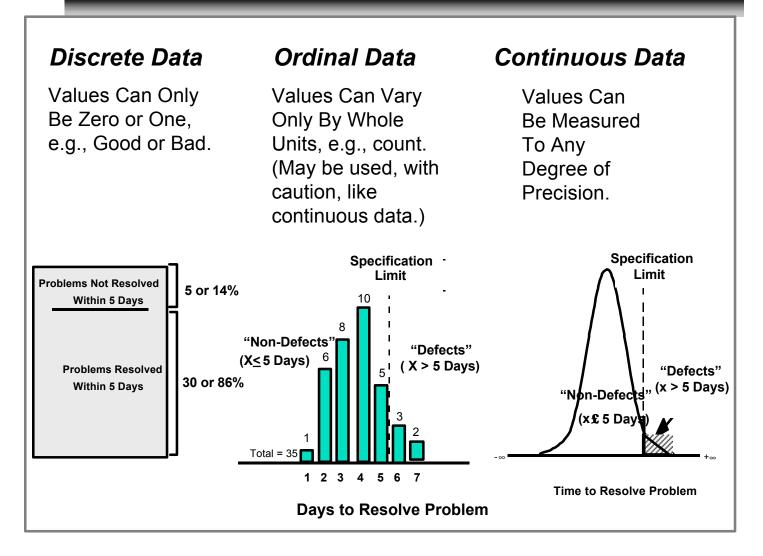
Discrete Data

- Counts the frequency of occurrence: e.g., the number of times something happens or fails to happen
- Is not capable of being meaningfully subdivided into more precise increments
- The Poisson and binomial models are used in connection with this type of data
- The validity of inferences made from discrete data are highly dependent upon the number of observations. The sample size required to characterize a discrete product or process feature is **much larger** than that required when continuous data is used.

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Discrete vs. Continuous

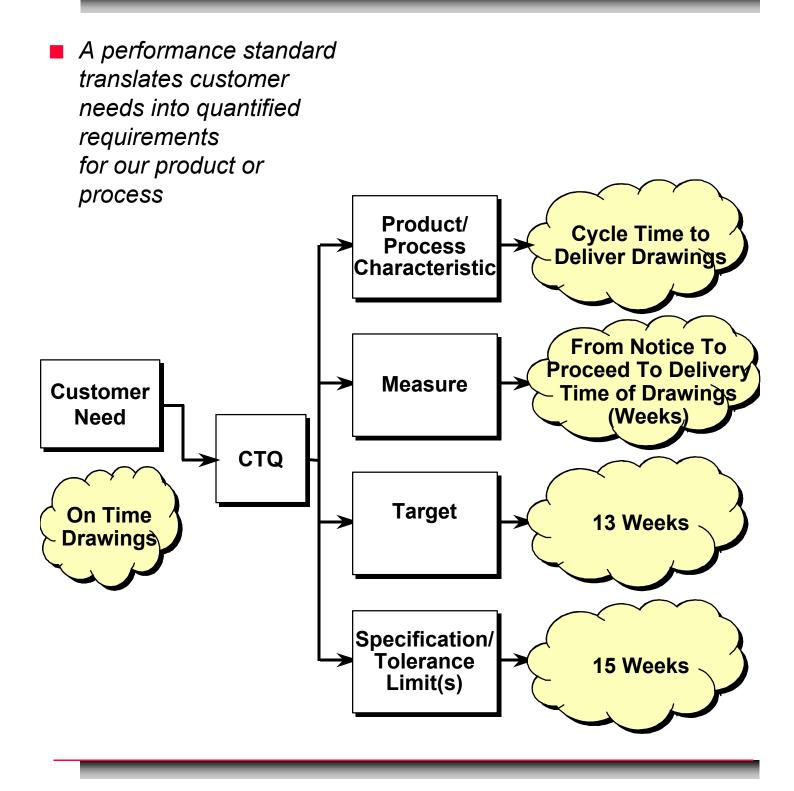


Defect rates can be calculated using either discrete or continuous data.

Establishing a Performance Standard

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Measurement Matrix

	Performance	Measurement Method	
СТQ Туре	Standard Source	Continuous	Discrete
Dimension	Drawings	Actual dimension	Good/Bad In/Out Tol. Pass/Fail
Time	Standards, Customers, Quotes/Bids	Actual time	Under/Over Estimate
Money	Quotes/Bids, Budgets	Actual cost	Under/Over Budget
Completeness	Process	% Complete	Present/Absent
Accuracy/ Quality	Standards, Process	Number of Errors	Good/Bad



The Road to Six Sigma

Less than 4-sigma

- Low hanging fruit
- Collect little bits of data
- Seven basic tools
- Discrete data OK

4-sigma to 5-sigma

- Process characterization and optimization
- Need continuous data

5-sigma to 6-sigma

- Design for Six Sigma
- Need continuous data



Defect: Any time the "prep for Non-destructive Testing" takes more than 25 hours for a compressor rotor

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Opportunity: Every compressor rotor Nondestructive Testing.

Measure: From the start time of "prep for blast" to the end time of "prep for blast." Measured continuously in hours.

Specification Limit: USL = 25 hours

Performance Standard Exercise: 20 mins.

- Working in teams, for two or more projects in your team
 - Identify your CTQ
 - Define the performance standard
 - \checkmark define the measurable characteristic
 - determine whether it is continuous or discrete
 - If the characteristic is discrete, can you measure it differently so that it can be continuous?
 - ✓ determine the specification limits if applicable
 - ✓ define a defect

One or two groups will be asked to present their findings.

Take Aways—Step 2

A performance standard answers these questions:

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- What does the customer want?
- What is a good product/process?
- What is a defect?
- The goal of a performance standard is to translate the customer need into a measurable characteristic.
- An operational definition is a precise description that tells how to get a value for the characteristic you are trying to measure.

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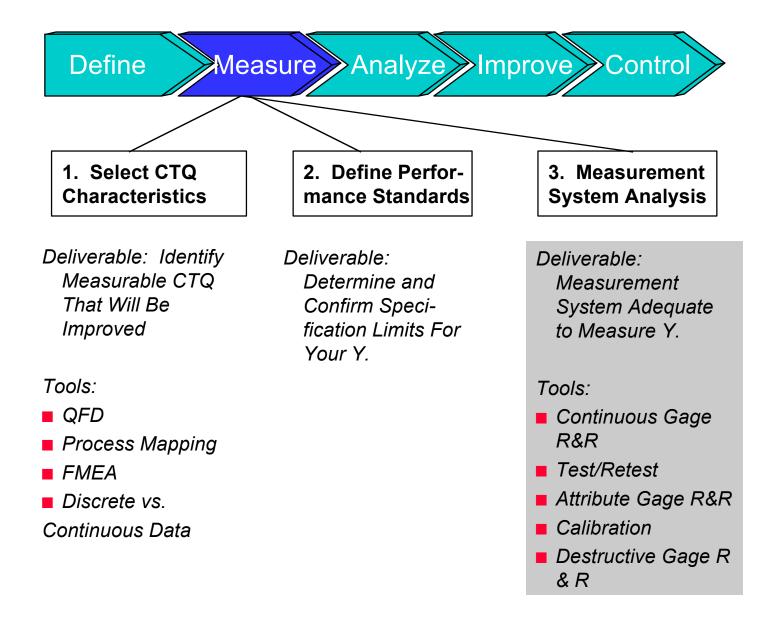
Take Aways—Step 2

A defect is a nonconformance or anything that results in customer dissatisfaction.

- Discrete Data is categorical data such as go and no-go and is summarized as frequencies of defects. It is not capable of being subdivided into more precise increments.
- Continuous Data is based on some continuum of values a measurement can take and is summarized using measures of central tendency and dispersion.



Measure Phase



Establish Data Collection Plan Objectives

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Step 3: Measurement System Analysis

- To develop a written strategy for collecting the data you will use in your project.
- To define a clear strategy for collecting reliable data efficiently.
- To develop a common reference document for all team members to promote clear communication about the purpose and methods for data collection and provide the link between the data collection effort and the project goals.



- Focuses on the project Y and performance standards for Y.
- Uses the required performance range for your project Y to help you select a measurement tool.

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- Helps ensure that resources are used effectively to collect only data that is critical to the success of the project.
- Requires the team to consider the problem to be solved, determine what data is needed to solve the problem, and then formulate a strategy for collecting the data.
- Considers potential Xs for the selected Y.



Costs versus the potential benefits of collecting new data.

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- If the cost to collect data exceeds the project benefits, you may:
 - Look for other ways to collect data
 - Consider reducing the number of samples needed by accepting a higher level of risk
 - Look for an alternate Y for the project CTQ
 - Re-examine the project charter
 - Challenge your team to think beyond the existing data collection mechanisms

Measurement Systems Analysis Objectives

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Step 3: Measurement System Analysis

By the end of Step 3, the BB/GB will have:

- a. Established the capability of the measurement system and the data.
- b. Gained consensus with the project team on any actions needed regarding the measurement system.



By the end of the training program, the participant will be able to:

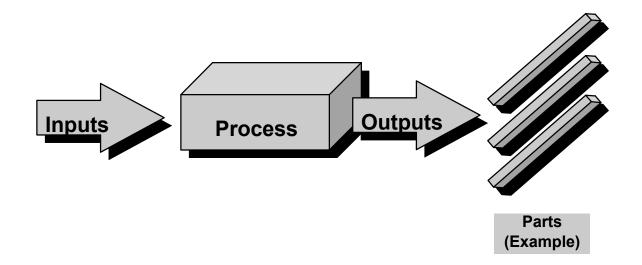
Understand measurement as a system which includes operators, gages and environment.

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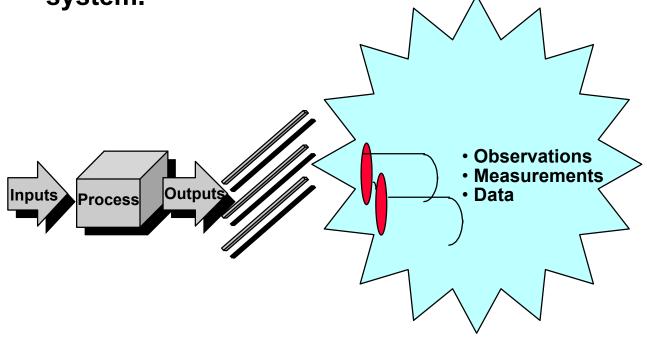
- Define the terms resolution, precision, accuracy bias, stability and linearity as used in Measurement Systems Analysis (MSA).
- Using the MSA Checklist, document the existing measurement system.
- Conduct a Test-Retest study and analyze the results.
- Conduct a Gage R&R study and analyze the results. Understand short form GR & R and attribute R & R. and the effect of tolerance on GR & R.
- Calculate both the appraiser variation (reproducibility) and equipment variation (repeatability).
- Identify the sources of variation in a measurement system.
- Define the concepts of calibration standards and destructive G R & R.



Evaluation of a Process



Any information we gather about process behavior must first pass through a sensory system.

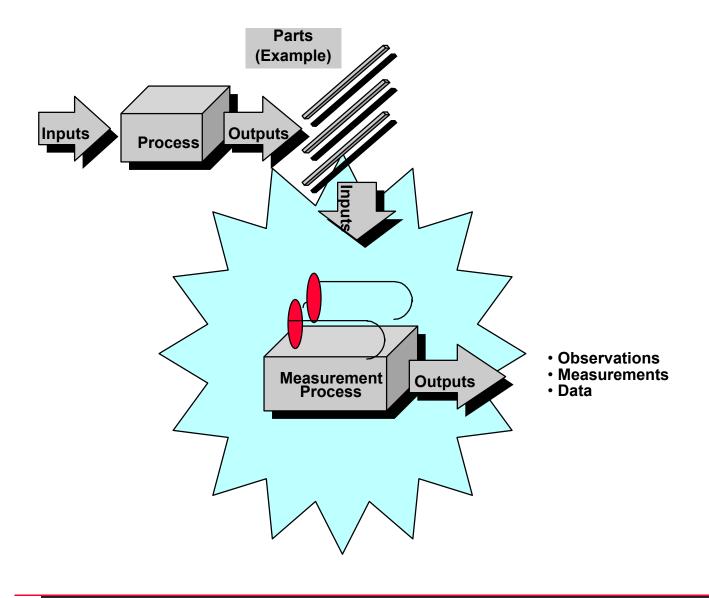




In other words, we must submit the output from the first process to a second process

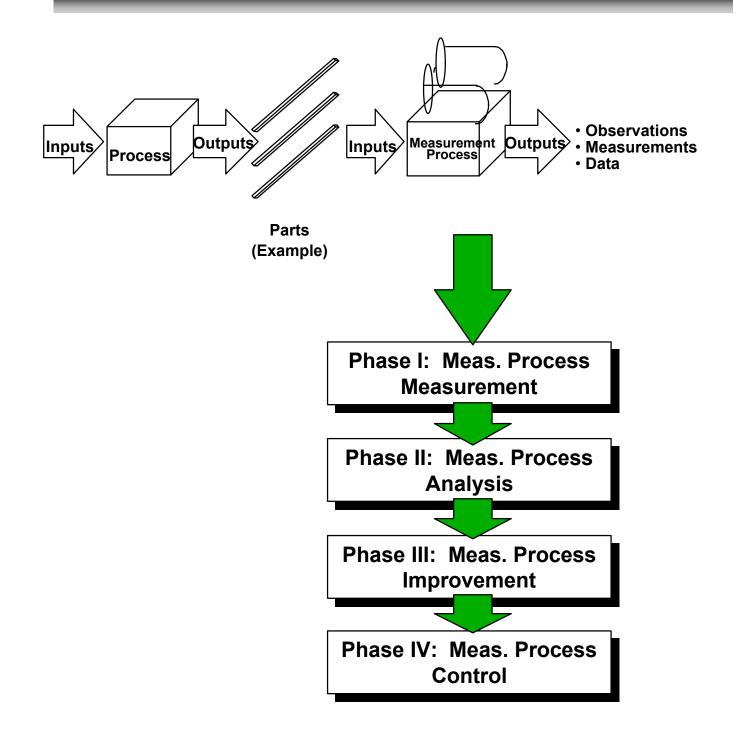
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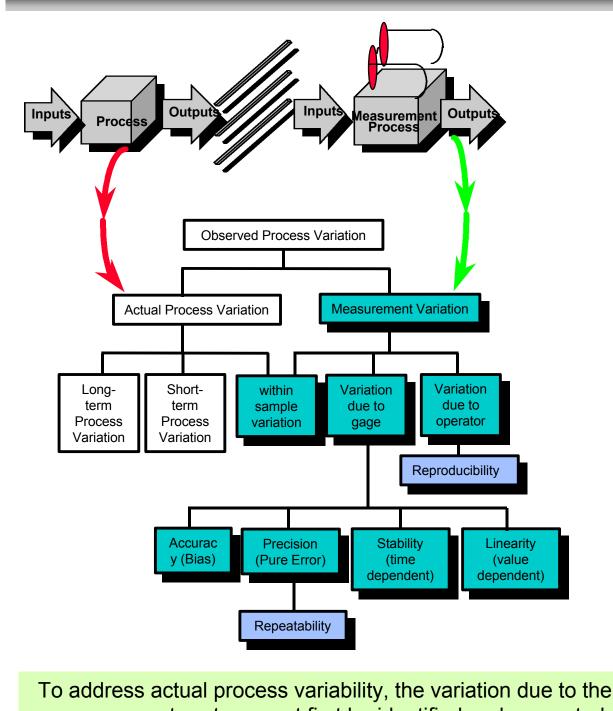


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Possible Sources of Variation



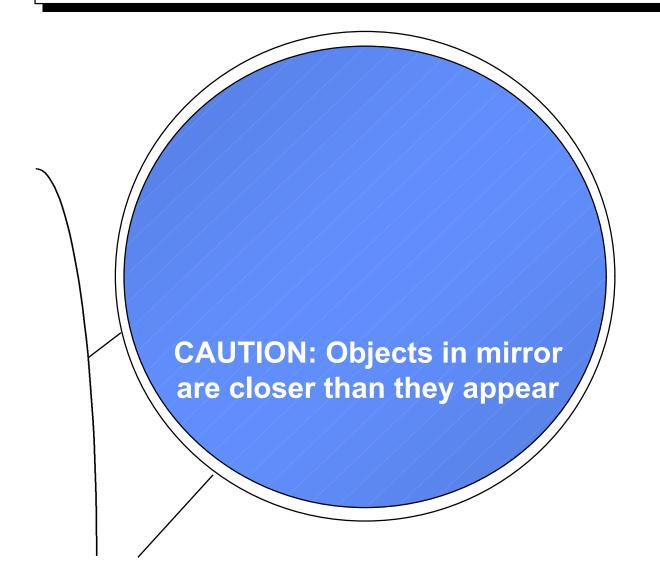
To address actual process variability, the variation due to the measurement system must first be identified and separated from that of the process

Measurement Systems Analysis

Possible Sources of Variation

A measurement system will not willingly disclose the type of distortion, inaccuracy or imprecision it is transmitting to our data. We must actively force it to reveal its hidden effects.

(H)





Measurement System Analysis

Accuracy – the differences between observed average measurement and a standard

Repeatability – variation when one person repeatedly measures the same unit with the same measuring equipment

Reproducibility – variation when two or more people measure the same unit with the same measuring equipment

Stability – variation obtained when the same person measures the same unit with the same equipment over an extended period of time

Linearity – the consistency of the measurement system across the entire range of the measurement system



Measurement (Gage) Requirements

The gage should have adequate precision based on two different comparisons:

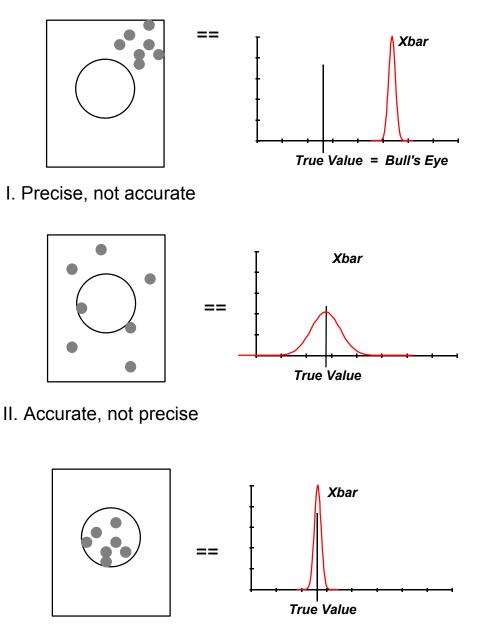
- Precision
 - The gage should be able to resolve the tolerance into approximately ten levels.
 If this condition is not met, the project team may be unable to achieve its goals.
- Accuracy
 - The gage noise must be less than the process noise, otherwise it will be impossible to see ordinary process variation.

If these two conditions are not met, the gage may be inadequate and data from the gage may be of no value. In that case, the gage must be either improved (use MAIC) or replaced (use DFSS) with a device that has acceptable precision.



Precision & Accuracy

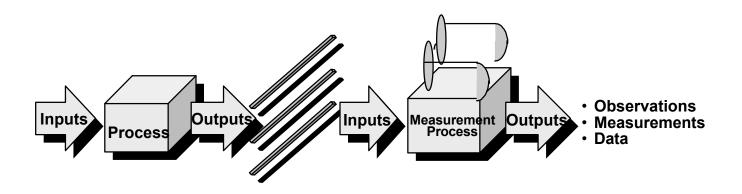
Target Analogy

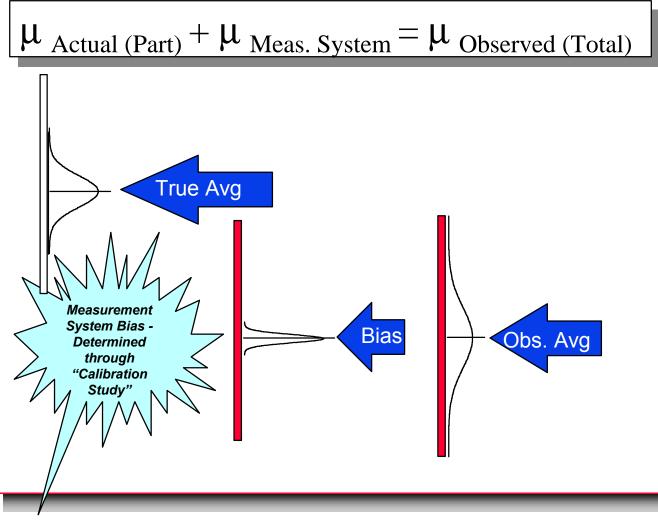


III. Precise and accurate



Accuracy (Bias) - Shift in the Average

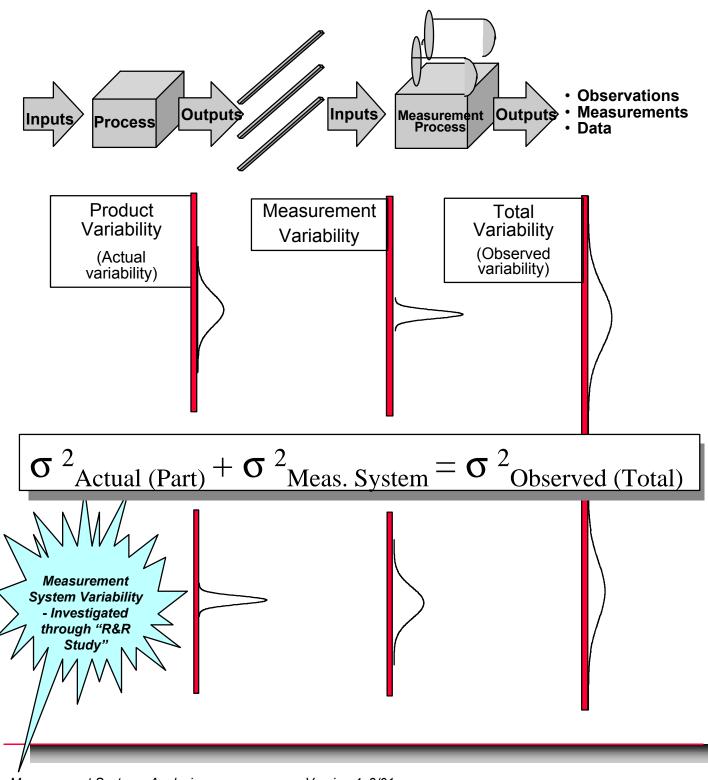




Measurement Systems Analysis



Measurement System Variation



Measurement Systems Analysis

Measurement Device (Gage) Resolution

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The Gage scale should divide, or resolve, the Tolerance into at least **10 parts.**

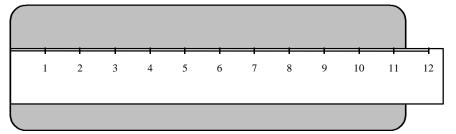
If this is not true, the Gage is inadequate—it cannot even SEE the variation that may, or may not exist. Its data is of no value in determining the process results or the true capability of the process.

If the gage Resolution is inadequate, it must be replaced with a device that has acceptable Resolution—then data can start to be gathered and analyzed.

Resolution & Significant Digits

Example—A steel rule marked only in whole inches:

(H)



Consider:

- 1. Only measures falling exactly on the scale marks (1, 2, 3, ..., 11, 12) are exact.
- Measures falling between marks are doubtful or uncertain — i.e., 11.2 in. requires an estimate of the 0.2 figure (might it not be 0.1 or 0.3? Or perhaps 0.18 or 0.26?)
- 3. The measured result of 11.2 in. contains three significant digits—two exact digits (the "11") and one doubtful digit (the "0.2").
- 4. The measurement should NOT be reported as: 11.21 or 11.214 or 11.2143 inches. Nor as 11.20 nor 11.200 nor 11.2000. Any of these would mislead the user of the data into thinking there are 4 or 5 significant digits when, at the best, we have only three due to the resolution of the device.

Elements of Measurement System Variability

Men & Women

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Method

Material

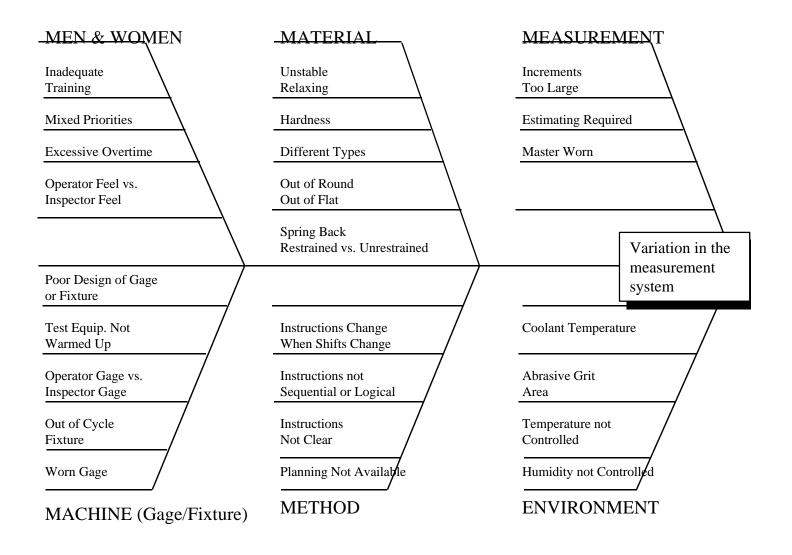
Measurement

Machine

Environment

Identify Potential Sources of Variation in the Measurement Process





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- The MSA Checklist
- The Test-Retest Study: a first look

The Gage Reproducibility and Repeatability Study



Measurement Systems Analysis Checklist

Review the following Guide & Checklist BEFORE conducting an in-depth measurement system study.

GUIDE to Measurement Systems Analysis and validation of data sources:

- 1. What is the measurement procedure used?
- 2. Briefly describe the measurement procedure. What standards apply? Are used?
- 3. What is the "precision" (measurement error) of the system?
- 4. How has the precision been determined?
- 5. What does the gage (measurement system) Supplier state is the device's:
 - = Discrimination (Resolution)?
 - = Accuracy (Bias)?
 - = Precision (Measurement Error)?
- 6. Do you have results of a:

=	Test-Retest Study?	(determines Measurement Error or "lack-of-precision")
=	Gage R&R Study?	(allocates the error between device and operator(s))

If so, what are they?

7. Are different measurement systems (gages, scales, etc.) used to gather the same data? Identify which data comes from which device.

Test-Retest Study

Best Practice Hint: Do Test-Retest before Gage R&R—a quick look at the situation.

<u>Why:</u> Determine the "Precision" of the system, instrument, device, or gage—where Precision = Measurement Error = Repeatability

<u> How:</u>

- · Repeatedly measure the same item.
- Same conditions, operator, device, and "location" on item—same, same, same.

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 Completely mount and dismount item for each measurement—"exercise" gage through full range of normal use.

Data: Twenty (20) or more measurements. If measurements are "difficult" or "expensive," then 10-15 may be OK. More is better. Calculate the sample Mean (X bar) and Standard Deviation (s or SD) of the repeated measurements.

Test-Retest Study

<u>Guidelines:</u>

1. **Device Precision**, really "lack-of-precision," should be less than 1/10 of the Tolerance:

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SD < 1/10 x Tolerance

If SD exceeds 1/10 X Tolerance, then the measurement system is unacceptable—the device introduces excessive "noise" into the data, it has a problem with **repeatability**. Action is required to find and remove the sources of this noise, this **error**—up to the possible replacement of the device.

2. Device Accuracy may be estimated if you know the truevalue of the Test Unit:

Inaccuracy = Bias = X bar - "True-Value"

If you use a "Standard Unit," the True-Value is known. Otherwise, you do not know the True-Value and, therefore, are not able to determine the device Accuracy or Bias.

Measurement Systems Analysis



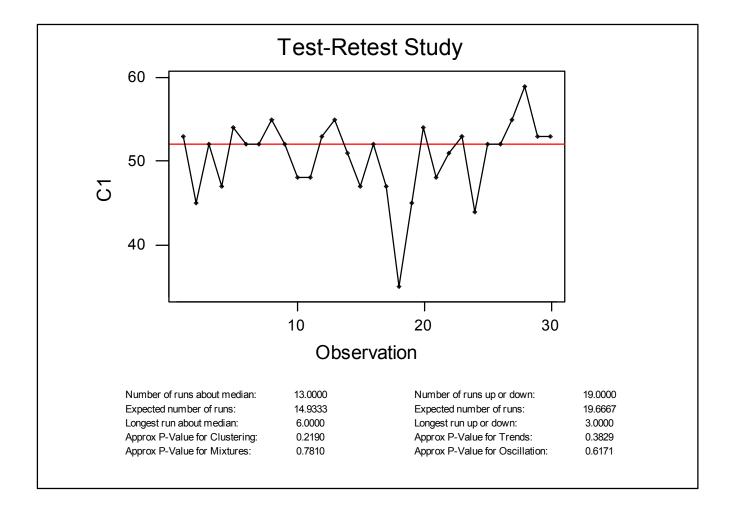
Example: Test-Retest study on a measuring device. Thirty (30) repeat measures were taken on a Working Standard test item of given thickness of 50 mils. The measuring device is used for a measurement where the Tolerance Width is 20 mils (+/- 10). The data, in mils, is below:

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53	48	48
45	53	51
52	55	53
47	51	44
54	47	52
52	52	52
52	47	55
55	35	59
52	45	53
48	54	53

Æ Analysis

<u>Step 1</u>: Plot the 30 measures in the sequence taken. Look for "patterns" or trends that may indicate the device is "shifting" as the measurements are taken.

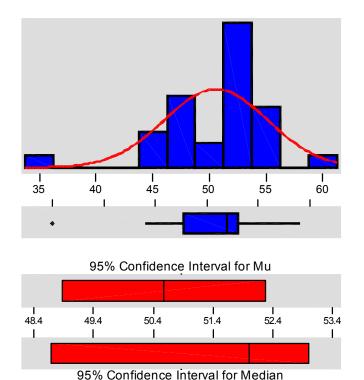


Analysis (cont.)

<u>Step 2</u>: Calculate sample statistics (X bar and SD) and plot a histogram of the measurements:

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Note that SD = 4.6 and X bar = 50.6—as shown below:



Descriptive Statistics

Variable: C1

Anderson-Darling Normality Test			
A-Squared:	1.210		
P-Value:	0.003		
Mean	50,5667		
StDev	4.5613		
Variance	20.8057		
Skewness	-1.38288		
Kurtosis	3.50411		
Ν	30		
Minimum	35,0000		
1st Quartile	47.7500		
Median			
3rd Quartile	52.0000 53.0000		
Maximum	59.0000		
95% Confidence Interval for Mu			
48.8634	52.2699		
95% Confidence Inte	erval for Sigma		
3.6327	6.1319		
95% Confidence Inte	erval for Median		
48.6861	53.0000		

Measurement Systems Analysis



<u>Step 3</u>: Conclusions = given that the Tolerance Width = 20 (+/- 10), the Test-Retest data shows an unacceptable level of device Precision:

> SD = 4.6 > 1/10 x (20) SD = 4.6 >> 2.0 Device has "problems" with Measurement Error

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Given that the Standard test item had a known thickness of 50 mils, the estimate of Accuracy is:

Inaccuracy = Bias = 50.6 - 50.0 = +0.6

The acceptability of this level of Bias depends on the application. If it remains consistent from reading to reading, then all measurements could be "adjusted" by subtracting the known Bias value of +0.6 mils.

How to Conduct A Gage Reproducibility & Repeatability (Gage R&R) Study

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- 1. Collecting the Data
- 2. Performing the Calculations
- 3. Analyzing the Results

Collecting the Data

Communicate the data collection plan

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- data to be collected
- method to use
- cost of the data collection process
- expected benefits of data collection to the project
- expected time frame
- Train employees on the data collection plan
 - operational definitions
 - measurement tools
 - procedures and checklists
- Collect the data
 - project Y
 - potential project Xs



In order to get and estimate variation in the "Real" Measurement System - follow the process

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- 1. Follow actual process
- 2. Use the people that usually measure
- 3. Follow the planning for the job
- 4. Perform the study in the usual environment
- 5. Use the gages used for the job

MAKE IT BUSINESS AS USUAL AS MUCH AS POSSIBLE



Types of Variation Estimated by the Gage R&R



(Sources of variation from within the process)_____ Within Gage - Within Operator - Within Part - Etc.

The variation introduced into the measurement process from within one or more elements of the measurement process - such as: within operator variation - within gage variation - within part variation - within method variation.

Appraiser Variation

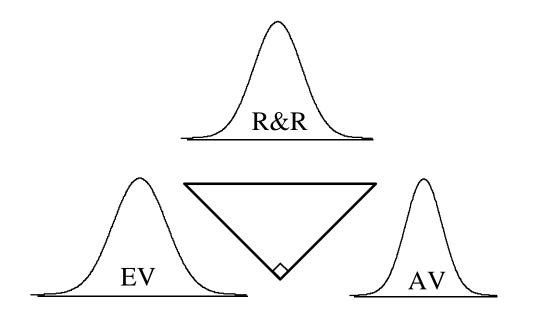
(Source of variation from across the process) Across Gages - Across Operators - Across Parts - Etc.

The variation introduced into the measurement process by effects going across the measurement process - such as different appraisers - different part configurations different checking methods.



Relationship Between EV, AV and R&R

R&R is the Reproducibility (AV) and Repeatability (EV) of the Measurement System. It represents the total variation in the Measurement System.

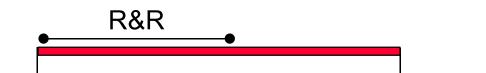






Relating R&R to Specification Window

How much of the tolerance is used up by the Measurement System variability?



Lower Spec. Limit

Upper Spec. Limit

Specification Window (tolerance)

About 50% of the tolerance, in this example, is used up by the Measurement System variability.

This leaves only 50% for the Process variability!

Measurement Systems Analysis



Analyzing the Gage R&R Results

Rules of Thumb

- 1. R&R less than 10% Measurement System acceptable.
- 2. R&R 10% to 30% maybe acceptable make decision based on classification of characteristic, hardware application, customer input, etc.
- 3. R&R over 30% not acceptable. find problem, re-visit the fishbone diagram, remove root causes.
- 4. A "signal-to-noise" Ratio = (StdDev_{parts}/StdDev_{GR&R}) X 1.41 and rounded Guidelines:
 < 2—no value for process control, parts all "look" the same
 = 2—can see two groups—high/low, good/bad
 = 3—can see three groups—high/mid/low
 >= 4—acceptable measurement system (higher is better)
- 5. Effective resolution—50%, or more, of Xbar chart outside control limits—implies part variation "exceeds" Measurement System variation.





- Gage R & R Studies should be performed over the range of expected observations.
- The primary objective of a Gage R & R study is to quantify the level of measurement variability.
- A secondary objective of the Gage R & R study is to separate the contributions of variability from different sources.
- The three methods for a Gage R & R study for continuous data are:
 - Short form
 - Long form
 - ANOVA
- Only short form and ANOVA are covered in this course. The ANOVA method is preferred over the long form method, since it gives more information than the other methods.
- The discrete/attribute data Gage R & R method is also presented.

Short Form Gage Repeatability and Reproducibility

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Short Form Gage Reproducbility Example

Part	Operator A	Operator B	Range(A-B)
1	4	2	2
2	3	4	1
3	6	7	1
4	5	7	2
5	9	8	1
(Tolerance = 20)		um of Ranges:	7
	А	verage Range:	1.4

Average Range = $\Sigma R/5 = (\overline{R}) = 7/5 = 1.4$ Gage Error (Gage R&R) = $5.15 (\overline{R}) = 5.15 (1.4)$ 1.19 1.19 = 6.1

Gage R&R as a % of Tolerance = (Gage R&R x 100) /Tolerance = $(6.1 \times 100/20) = 30.5\%$

Note: In the short form method, repeatability and reproducibility cannot be separated.

Short Form Gage R&R Example

• Gage Error is calculated by multiplying the average range by a constant (4.33 in our example). The constant value is derived from the ratio 5.15/d*, where d* is determined from the following table. For our example, d* = 1.19, for 5 parts and 2 operators.

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- 5.15 STD represent 99% confidence level for a normal distribution.
- <u>d* Values for the Distribution of the Average</u> <u>Range</u>

	Number of Operators		
ımber	1		
parts	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>
1	1.41	1.91	2.24
2	1.28	1.81	2.15
3	1.23	1.77	2.12
4	1.21	1.75	2.11
5	1.19	1.74	2.10
6	1.18	1.73	2.09
7	1.17	1.73	2.09
8	1.17	1.72	2.08
9	1.16	1.72	2.08
10	1.16	1.72	2.08
	parts 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Notes



Exercise – Use the Short Method to Determine the Gage Error

Dimension "D" = 2.000 +/- .015

Operator A	Operator B	Range
2.003	2.001	
1.998	2.003	
2.007	2.006	
2.001	1.998	
1.999	2.003	
	2.003 1.998 2.007 2.001	1 1 2.003 2.001 1.998 2.003 2.007 2.006 2.001 1.998

Sum of Ranges:

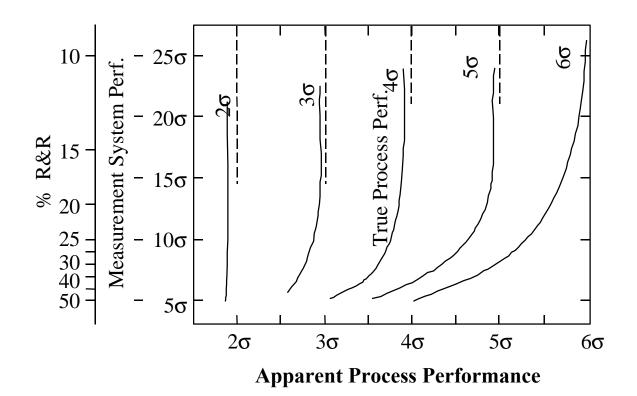


Gage R&R Process: Guidelines

- 1. R&R less than 10% measurement system acceptable.
- 2. R&R 10% to 30% maybe acceptable - make decision based on classification of characteristic, hardware application, customer input, Sigma level of your process.
- 3. R&R over 30% not acceptable. Find problem. Remove root cause.







The Measurement System Needs to be an Order of Magnitude Better than the Desired Process Sigma

Solution to Short Form Exercise

Use the short method to determine the gage error.

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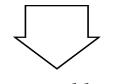
Part	Operator A	Operator B	Range
1	2.003	2.001	0.002
2	1.998	2.003	0.005
3	2.007	2.006	0.001
4	2.001	1.998	0.003
5	1.999	2.003	0.004
Sum of Ranges:			0.015

Dimension "D" = 2.000 +/- .015

Calculations:

n = number of parts

Average Range, $(\overline{R}) = \Sigma R/n = 0.015/5 = 0.003$ Gage Error (GRR) = (5.15/1.19) (\overline{R}) = (4.33)(0.003) = 0.013GRR as a % of Tolerance = $(0.013X \ 100) / 0.030 = 43.3\%$



Unacceptable gage



Gage R&R Bolt Exercise - Optional

The Gage Reproducibility & Repeatability (GR&R) Study:Optional

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- 1. Set up "data sheet"—Minitab.
- 2. Perform study—collect & enter Data.
- 3. Perform calculations & prepare Charts.
- 4. Analyze—interpret & draw conclusions.
- Take action, make recommendations keep, improve, or replace the measurement system.

BEST PRACTICE Hints:

- randomize readings
- use graphs and charts to analyze
- ANOVA is "best" study method
- base conclusions on <u>more than</u> Gage R&R% of Tolerance alone





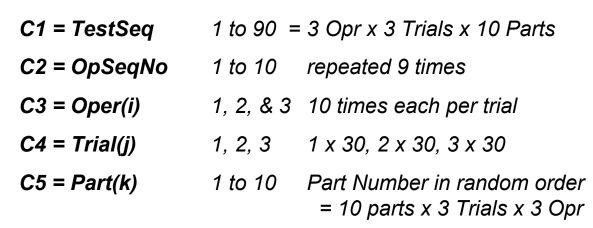
Gage R&R "Bolt" Exercise: Optional

 Each team performs Gage R&R study on a bolt <u>measuring process</u>.



- The <u>feature of interest</u> = bolt diameter.
- Three operators measure diameter of ten bolts, three times: 3x10x3 = 90. The order they are measured should be <u>random</u>.
- Team may have one size of bolt, but different teams may have different sizes.
 [Bolt tolerance(s) on a later page Þ]
- Prepare Minitab "data sheet" for the study.
- <u>Take measurements & input data</u>.
- Analyze & interpret results—numeric and graphical outputs via Minitab.

Set up Minitab Data Sheet:



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Optional

C6 = Xijk

the reading

Sample Da	ata Sheet				
TestSeq	OpSeqNo	Oper(i)	Trial(j)	Part(k)	Xijk
1	1	1	1		
2	2	1	1	pick from bag at	actual data
3	3	1	1	random:	in this last column
4	4	1	1	they are	/
5	5	1	1	numbered	
6	6	1	1	from 1 to 10	
7	7	1	1	in a bag—	•
8	8	1	1	for this exercise	
9	9	1	1		
10	10	1	1		
11	1	2	1	use other random	-
12	2	2	1	for any real study	
13	3	2	1		
14	4	2	1		
15	5	2	1		
16	6	2	1		
17	7	2	1		
18	8	2	1		
19	9	2	1		
20	10	2	1		
21	1	3	1		
22	2	3	1		
23	3	3	1		

More Best-Practice Hints: Optional

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- Review RESOLUTION of gage ("Scale Ticks") = record data to one UNCERTAIN DIGIT.
- Establish "rule" used for setting uncertain digit:
 - 1/10th of interval
 - nearest 1/4th of interval
 - how is "rounding" done
- Avoid "dumb decimal digits"—if data is in 1/1,000ths, then record 0.0052 as 5.2 'mils' [5.2 mm, etc.]; if in '10 thousands', then record 0.03465 as 346.5; etc., etc. [reduces entry error]
- Make notes of unusual readings.
- Randomize parts within operators.
- Think about how data is being "subgrouped" by operator, trial, part—and by sequence within operator—and overall sequence.

What questions can this data answer?



"Bolt"- Specifications: Optional

Two sizes:

3/8" = 6/16" 0.375" +/- 0.010" Big [0.365 0.385] or LSL = 365 USL = 385 mils "Tolerance" = Tol Width = 20 mils

5/16" 0.3125" +/- 0.010" Small [0.3025 0.3225] or LSL = 302.5 USL = 322.5 mils "Tolerance" = Tol Width = 20 mils



Common Example:

We will review the Bolt Exercise, but first...Greenville a Gage R&R study:

- 3 Operators, 3 Trials, 10 Parts (pins) = 90 data points
- Data in whole mils, no decimal (scale ticks = mils)
- Range of X_{ijk} = 342 to 390; Xbar = 364.54
- Spec Width = (USL LSL) = 20 mils

Example file = Grr02-gvl6-97.mtw

TestSeq	OpSeqNo	Oper(i)	Trial(j)	Part(k)	Xijk
1	1		1	4	370
2	2	1	1	7	372
3	3	1	1	9	390
4	4	1	1	3	360
5	5	1	1	10	355
6	6	1	1	8	360
7	7	1	1	1	352
8	8	1	1	2	390
9	9	1	1	6	342
10	10	1	1	5	360
11	1	2	1	8	360
12	2	2	1	1	355
13	3	2	1	4	370
14	4	2	1	3	365
15	5	2	1	6	350
16	6	2	1	9	390
17	7	2	1	10	352
18	8	2	1	7	372
19	9	2	1	5	360
20	10	2	1	2	390
21	1	3	1	3	365
i -	:	:	:	:	:
i -	:	:	:	:	:

Analyzing Gage R&R Results—Review

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Use graphs and charts to analyze

- ANOVA is "best" study method
- look at more than Gage R&R% of tolerance

MINITAB FILE: Grr02-gvl6-97.mtw

MINITAB	- Untitled										_ 8 ×
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↓	OpSeqNo		Stem-an	d-Lea <u>f</u>		Part(k)	Xijk				
1	1	ΠÌ	Charact	er <u>G</u> raphs	×	4	370				
2	2	<u> </u>	1		1	7	372				
3	3		1		1	9	390				
4	4		1		1	3	360				
5	5		1		1	10	355				
6	6		1		1	8	360				
7	7		1		1	1	352				
1	8	1	1		1	7	390				• •
Draw a box-an	id-whiskers plot										

Graphical Analysis

Boxplo	ot							×
C1 C2	OpSeqNo	<u>G</u> raph va	riables: Y (measur	ement) v	s X (categ	ory)	
C2 C3 C4	Oper(i) Trial(j)	Graph	Y			×	F	
C5	Part(k) Xijk	1	Xijk		'Oper(:			
		2	Xijk		'Trial			
		3	Xijk		'Part()	<)'	•	
		<u>D</u> ata disp	olay:					
		ltem	Display	▼ For	each 🔻	Group	variable	_
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		2	Outlier S	i>> Graj	ph			
		3						-
				<u>E</u> dit /	Attributes			
	Select	<u>A</u> nnotat	ion 🔻	<u>F</u> rame	•	Regions		
	Help	Option	IS		4 <u>0</u>	<	Cancel	

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Boxplot Options		×	
Transpose X and	Y		
Help	<u>0</u> K	Cancel	

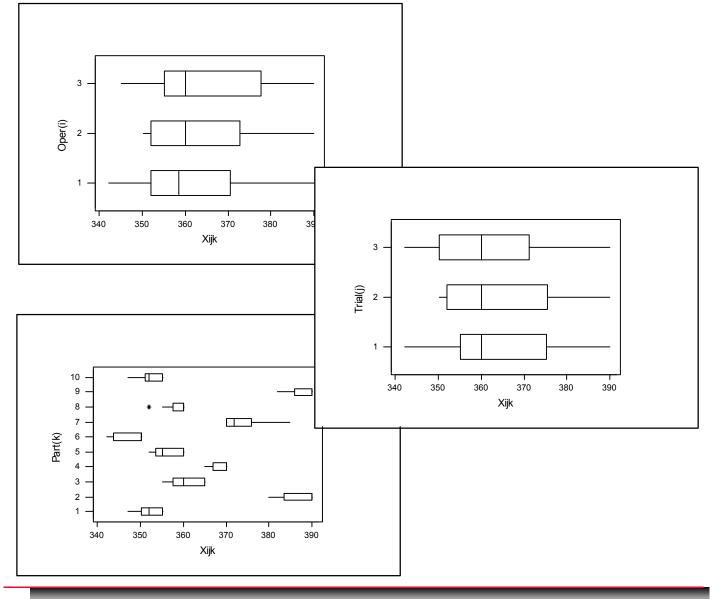
Graphical Analysis

What "factors" affect the measurements, the X_{ijk} ?

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- Operator (i)?
- Trial (j)?
- Part (k)?

What does this say about the measurement system?



Measurement Systems Analysis

Gage R&R Study: ANOVA Method

%

Gage R&R Study: ANOVA Method

MINITAB FILE: Grr02-gvl6-97.mtw

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<u>File E</u> dit <u>M</u> anip <u>(</u>	Qalo <mark>S</mark> ta	at <u>G</u> raph E <u>d</u>	itor <u>W</u> indov	v <u>H</u> elp Si <u>x</u> Sigm	3				
	, 唯	<u>Basic Statistic</u> <u>Regression</u>	s 🕨			0 ?			
E Session									
		DOE	•						
Source		Control <u>C</u> harts	•		n				
	2000	Quality Tools	•	<u>R</u> un Chart		0.1			
Part(k)		Reliability/Sur Multivariate	vivai 🕨	<u>P</u> areto Chart Cause-and-Efi					
Oper(i) Oper(i)*Part	(\mathbf{k})	Time <u>S</u> eries	•						
Repeatabilit		<u>T</u> ables	+		lysis (Normal)				
Total		<u>N</u> onparametric	is 🕨		lysis (<u>W</u> eibull) Jack (Normal)				
		<u>E</u> DA	•		ack (Wei <u>b</u> ull)				
		Power and Sa	mple Size 🕨	Canability Ana	lysis (Bi <u>n</u> omial)				
					lysis (Poiss <u>o</u> n)				
•				Six Sigma Pro	ness Benort				
GRR02-~1.MT	1			Six Sigma Pro	•			1	<u>- </u>
	:1	C2	C3			C6	C7	C8	<u>C9</u>
	eqNo	Oper(i)	Trial(j)	<u>G</u> age Run Ch Gage <u>L</u> inearity					
1	1	1		Gage R&R St					
2	2	1		Multi-Vari Cha					
3	3	1		Symmetry Plot					
4	4	1							
5	5	1		1 10	355				
6	6	1		1 8	360				
7	7	1		1 1	352				
8	8	1		1 2	390		1		
Perform a Gage R&R :	study usir	ng the ANOVA	or Xbar-R me	thods					.22

ANOVA Method

1. Select Columns for Part, Operator, & Measurement

Gage R&R Study			×
C1 OpSeqNo C2 Oper(i) C3 Trial(j) C4 Part(k) C5 Xijk	Part <u>n</u> umbers: Ope <u>r</u> ators: M <u>e</u> asurement data:	<mark>'Part(k)'</mark> 'Oper(i)' Xijk	<u>G</u> age Info Options
Select Help	Method of Analysis		<u>Q</u> K Cancel

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2. Select the ANOVA method.

3. Select Options.

Gage R&R Study - Options
Study variation: 5.15 (number of standard deviations)
Process tolerance: 20
Process variation:
Draw plots on separate pages, one plot per page
<u>T</u> itle:
Help OK Cancel
4. Enter tolerance width. 5. Select OK.

Analyzing Gage R&R

Gage R&R Study - <u>ANOVA Method</u> ANOVA Table With Operator* Part Interaction

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	Р
Parts	9	16728.1	1858.68	186.698	0.00000
Operators	2	192.4	96.18	9.661	0.00141
Oper*Part	18	179.2	9.96	1.089	0.38509
Repeatability	60	548.7	9.14		\checkmark
Total	89	17648.3			

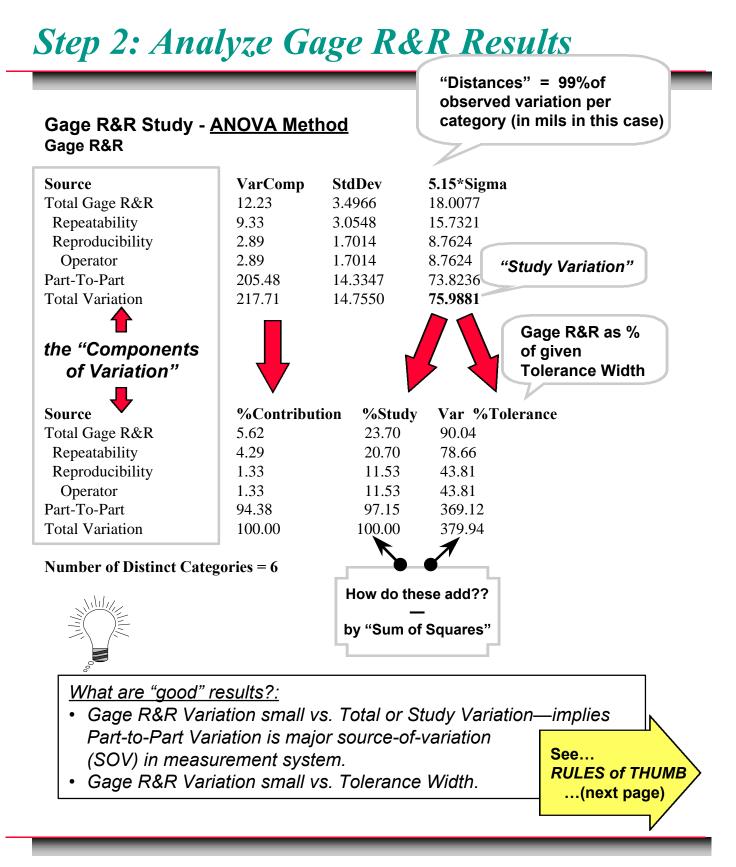
Step 1: Is Operator x Part Interaction significant? Some Parts read differently by different Operators?

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ANOVA Table Without Operator* Part Interaction

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	Р
Parts	9	16728.1	1858.68	199.181	0.00E+00
Operators	2	192.4	96.18	10.307	1.07E-04
Repeatability	78	727.9	9.33		
Total	89	17648.3			
		Intera	action NOT S	ignificant—A	NOVA rerun

<u>Next Step</u> = Analyze Gage R&R results



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Measurement Systems Analysis

Rules of Thumb

Analyzing Gage R&R Results

GE)

- A. R&R% of Tolerance
- 1. R&R less than 10% Measurement System "acceptable"
- 2. R&R 10% to 30% May be acceptable make decision based on classification of Characteristic, Application, Customer Input, etc.
- 3. R&R over 30% <u>Not acceptable</u>. Find problem, re-visit the Fishbone Diagram, remove Root Causes. Is there a better gage on the market, is it worth the additional cost? **DANGER: these rules of thumb may NOT apply when process improvement/ process control is the goal!** ALL data should be analyzed statistically and graphically before drawing conclusions!—SEE FOLLOWING

Rules of Thumb

B. % Contribution (or Gage R&R StdDev): GR&R Variance should be "small" compared to Part-to-Part Variance—applies in cases where Tolerance Width is not meaningful, and %Tolerance is unavailable—such as <u>one sided specs</u>

(H)

C. Number of Distinct Categories

A "Signal-to-Noise" Ratio = (StdDev_{parts}/StdDev_{GR&R})x1.41 and **rounded**

Guidelines:

- < 2 *P* no value for process control, parts all "look" the same
- = 2 *P* can see two groups—high/low, good/bad
- = 3 *P* can see three groups—high/mid/low
- ³ 4 *P* acceptable measurement system (higher is better)

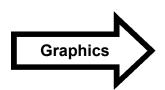
D. Effective Resolution

50%, or more, of Xbar Chart outside control limits—implies part variation "exceeds" Measurement System variation



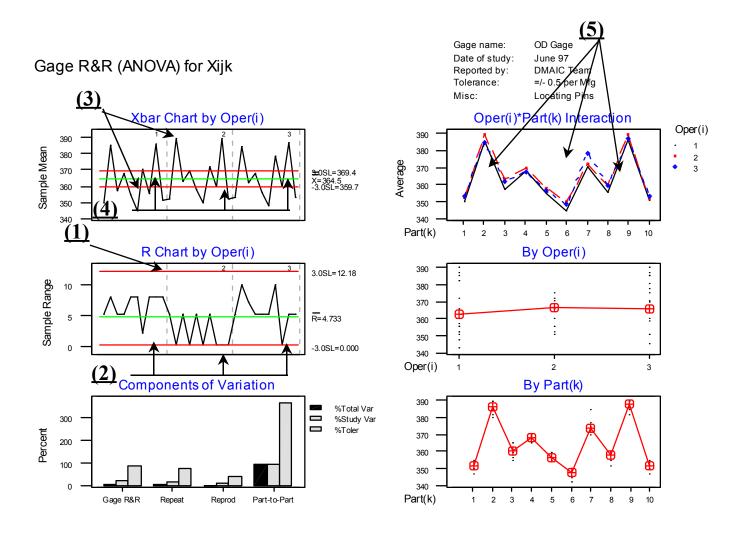
Step 3: Apply Gage R&R Rules

Gage R&R Study - A	NOVA Method		
Source	VarComp	StdDev	5.15*Sigma
Total Gage R&R	12.23	3.4966	18.0077
Repeatability	9/33	3.0548	15.7321
Reproducibility	/2.89	1.7014	8.7624
Operator /	2.89	1.7014	85
Part-To-Part	205.48	14.3347	Kule A
Total Variation	217.71	14.7550	75.900
Rule B			
Source The	%Contribution	%Study Var	%Tolerance
Total Gage R&R	5.62	23.70	90.04
Repeatability	4.29	20.70	78.66
Reproducibility	1.33	11.53	43.81
Operator	1.33	11.53	43.81
Part-To-Part	94.38	97.15	369.12
Total Variation	100.00	100.00	379.94
Number of Distinct Ca	tegories = 6	Rule C	





Gage R&R Graphical Output



<u>Conclusion:</u> Gage not OK for given specs, but can "see" part-to-part variation.

"Bolt" Gage R&R

Now let's look at "Bolt" Gage R&R:

<u>Steps:</u>

1. Visual "feel" for Gage R&R data:
Box Plots by Operator, Trial, Part
Graph >Boxplot
2. Run Gage R&R ANOVA Method:
Stat >Quality Tools >Gage R&R Study
3. Analyze Gage R&R Results:
• is Operator x Part Interaction significant ?
• apply Rules of Thumb:
A. Gage R&R% of Tol. = [< 30% ?]
B. %Contribution = $[Gage R&R vs Part StdDev?]$
[3]
C. No. Distinct Cat. = $[^3 4?]$
D. Effective Res. = [³ 50%?]
4. Graphical Output:
1) <u>Stability</u> : R Chart
2) <u>Consistency Within</u> : R Chart pattern for appraisers
3) <u>Effective Resolution</u> : Xbar Chart - > 50% points outside
4) <u>Consistency Between</u> : Xbar consistency between operators
,
5) <u>Systematic Shift</u> : Operator/Part Interaction Plot
CONCLUSIONS—is Measurement System OK ?
for given Tolerance?
to see Part-Part variation?
comments?

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[Hint: make maximum use of graphs and charts to prep reports, support conclusions]

Measurement Systems Analysis

Example

Acceptable Gage R&R for <u>both</u> Process Improvement and Product Acceptance:

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Source	%Contribution	%Study Va	r %Toleran	се
Total Gage R&	R 6.332	25.164	23.51	
Repeatability	3.509	18.733	17.50	
Reproducibility	2.823	16.802	15.70	
Part-to-Part	93.668	96.782	90.42	
Total Variation	100.000	100.000	93.43	
Number of dist	inct categories =	5		
			<u>(5)</u>	
Gage R&R (Xbar/R) for Response	Gage name Date of drudy: Benoted hr			
	reported by: Talarinoe: Misc: art by Operator	Gage R&R (Xbar/R) for Response	Cage name Date of study Reported by:	
	2 445 L=0.0796 X=0.0275		Totennee Misc:	
Sample Mean	3.651-0.7354		or*Part Interaction	Operator
		1.0 - 0.9 -	Â.	· 1 · 2
	t by Operator	0.8 - 0.7 -		• 3
gample Range	R-0.0033	Ø 0.7 − 0.6 −		
	3.05L-0.000	0.5 -	V/	
<u>(2)</u> 1	<i>/</i> /	Part 1 2 3 4	5 6 7 8 9 10	

Review

Best Practices:

• Prepare data entry form = 6 columns

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- Randomize readings
- Use graphs and charts to analyze
- ANOVA = "best" study method
- Base conclusions on <u>more than</u> Gage R&R% of Tolerance alone



Review

Rules of Thumb

A. R&R% of Tolerance

- 1. R&R less than 10% = "acceptable"
- 2. *R*&*R* 10% to 30% = *May* be acceptable
- 3. R&R over 30% Not acceptable
- **B. % Contribution (or Gage R&R StdDev)** = "small" compared to Part-to-Part Variance—cases where Tolerance Width is not meaningful, and %Tolerance is unavailable—one sided specs.

(H)

C. Number of Distinct Categories

- < 2 *P* no value for process control, parts all "look" the same
- = 2 *I* can see two groups—high/low, good/bad
- = 3 *I* can see three groups—high/mid/low
- ³ 4 *P* acceptable measurement system (higher is better)

D. Effective Resolution = Xbar Chart > 50% outside control limits

Measurement Systems Analysis

Attribute Gage R & R

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Analyzing Gage R&R with Attribute Data: AR&R's

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- The long form method of analysis used Minitab and Anova to determine the adequacy of <u>continuous</u> data collected on the measurement system.
- If the data to be collected can only be classified as <u>attribute</u>, a slightly modified analysis method must be used.
- The objectives are unchanged, as it is still desirable to determine the adequacy of the measurement system, and whether to focus on equipment, appraiser, or both for improvement purposes.



AR&R Data Sheet

R&R Data	3									
)									
<u> </u>		-			-	-		-		
		'True' Operator 1		Operator 2				Operato		
Sam ple	Answer	Trial1	Trial2	Trial3	Trial1	Trial2	Trial3	Trial1	Trial2	Trial
1	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
2	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
3	N D	N D	N D	N D	N D	N D	N D	D D	N D	N D
4	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	N	D
6	N	N	N	N	D N	N	N	N	N N	N
7	D	N	D	N	D	D	D	D	D	D
8	N	N	N	N	D	N	D	N	N	N
9	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
10	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	D	N	D
11	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
12	D	N	N	N	D	D	D	D	D	D
13	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
14	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
15	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
16	N	D	D	D	N	N	N	N	N	N
17	N	N	N	N	Ν	N	N	N	N	N
18	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
19	N	N	N	N	D	D	D	N	N	N
20	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	D	D	N
21	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	N
22	N	N	N	N	D	D	D	N	N	N
23	N	N	N	N	D	D	D	Ν	N	N
24	N	N	N	Ν	Ν	Ν	Ν	D	D	D
25	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
26	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
27	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
28	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
29	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
30 31	D D	N	D	N	D	D	D	D D	D	D
31 32	N	D N	D N	D N	D N	D N	D N	D N	D N	DN
32	N	D	N N	N N	D	D	N N	N N	N N	N N
33	N	D N	N	N N	D N	N	N N	N N	N N	N N
34	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	D	N
35	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
38	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	D	N	N
37	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	D
39	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
40	N	N	N	N	D	D	D	N	N	N





-										
Number of Defects										
Sample	Trial1	Trial2	Trial3	Trial1	Trial2	Trial3	Trial1	Trial2	Trial3	Total
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
8	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	2
9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
19	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	3
20	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2
21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
22	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	3
23	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	3
24	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	3
25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
26 27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
28 29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 0
29 30	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
33	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	3
34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
35	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
36	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
37	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
39	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
40	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	3
# of N	5	2	4	6	5	5	5	4	4	40



AR&R Analysis Example

)						
AR&R Mea	surement S	ystem				
	Input Section					
Operators	Discrepancies	No. of Samples	No. of Repeats	Total_Opps		
Oper 1	11	40	3	120		
Oper 1 Oper 2	11 16	40 40	3	120 120		
•		-	3 3 3	_		

			Confidence Limits on Zmeasure		
Outpu	Output Section			0.05	
ppm	Yield	Zmeas	lower	upper	
91667	90.83%	1.33	1.00	1.6 8	
133333	86.67%	1.11	0.82	1.42	
108333	89.17%	1.24	0.92	1.56	
111111	88.89%	1.22	1.04	1.40	

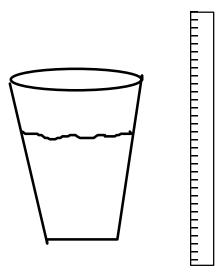
GR&R Break Out-Optional Exercise

GE)

Your team will complete a measurement study using MINITAB gage R&R. You have five cups of water (parts), a ruler (the gage) and three operators.

Decide the role of each team member. Conduct the measurement study and analyze the results.

Report out gage R&R, AV, EV values and interpretations.

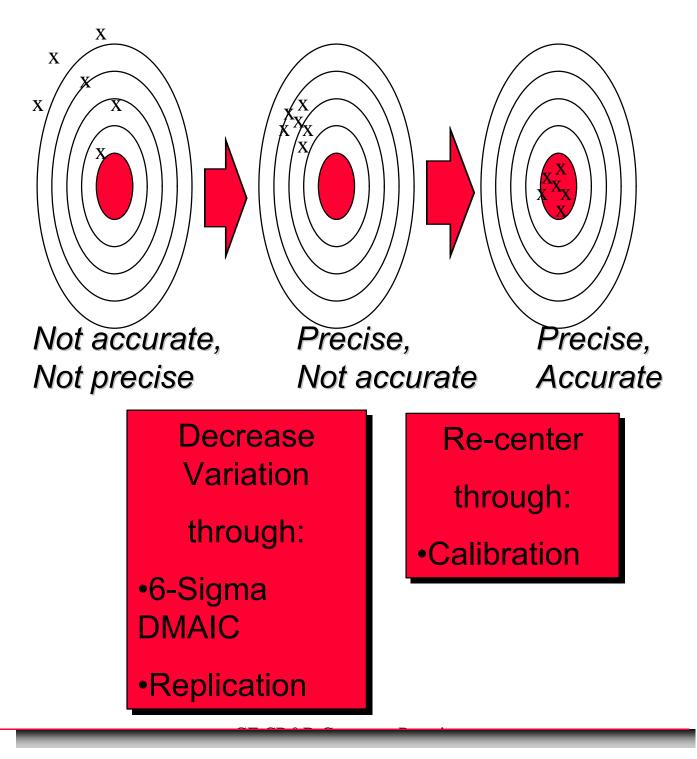


Calibration Standards

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Gage Improvement Roadmap

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Destructive Gage R&R

Temporal Measurement System Analysis

96)

Objective:

Understand the limitations that destructive and temporal elements place on continuous data Gage R&R analyses



Destructive Testing

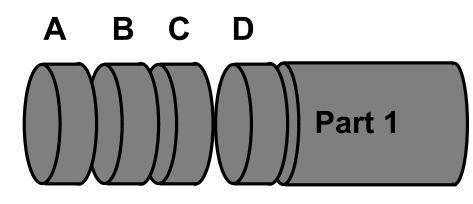
- Some tests (torque, yield strength, tensile, modulus, elongation, hardness, rheometer, etc.) are destructive tests.
- The part cannot be measured by more than one operator because it is destroyed.
- Parts should be selected to minimize within "part" variability by taking one, homogeneous part and dividing it into sections.
- The main part is what the ANOVA table will call a "part" and the subsections are available for multiple observations.

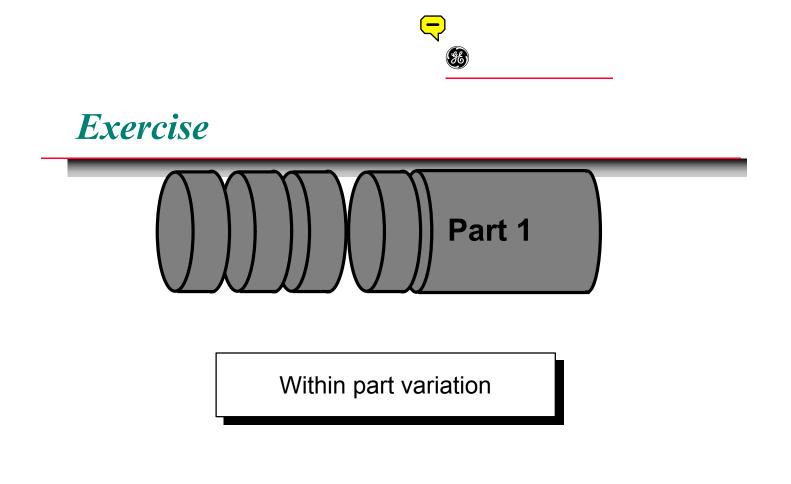


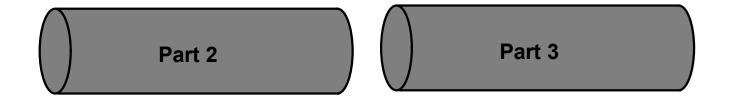
Each operator measures subsections of the the same overall part

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- Since each operator measures a portion of the same part, the parts must be as homogeneous as possible.
- > ANOVA may be is used to analyze data from a destructive test GR&R Study.
- It is helpful to label parts with numbers and subsections with letters to help avoid confusion.

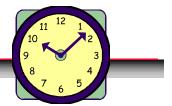






Between part variation

Measurement Systems Analysis



Gage R&R depends upon our ability to observe the same part or event multiple times.

GE)

- If the item measured is an *event*, it may not happen the same way twice. For this reason, Gage R&R may be impossible.
- If the event is recorded via video or audio tape, it may be possible to conduct a Gage R&R study.
- If the event cannot be recorded, but multiple judges can observe at once, reproducibility can be estimated, but repeatability cannot be.

Example

Many Olympic sports are judged based on a numerical score sheet filled out by a judge. The difference among different judge's readings of one, live event is a measure of reproducibility.

GE)

For this same case, repeatability can be estimated only if the competition is taped. A random sample of 10 performances, shown to five judges two times each would allow estimates of both repeatability and reproducibility



Temporal Effects

Example



Call centers field service calls from around the world at centralized locations. Call duration and call quality are both recorded and tracked very closely.

GE)

Call quality is calculated based on a scoring sheet filled out by a quality monitor. Calls are scored on a continuous scale from 1 -100 and can be assumed to be continuous for the purposes of a Gage R&R calculation.

Temporal Effects

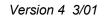
Example, continued

In one monitoring scenario, monitors listen in live and score the calls. For a live listen it is impossible to calculate repeatability, but if two monitors listen at the same time, it is possible to calculate reproducibility.

GE)

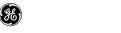
In another monitoring scenario, calls are recorded at random and scored at a later date. For this recorded scenario, both repeatability and reproducibility may be calculated.





Are we capturing the correct data? Does the data reflect what is happening in the process?

- How big is the measurement error?
- Can we detect process improvement if and when it happens?
- What are the sources of measurement error?
- Are the measurements being made with measurement units which are small enough to properly reflect the variation present?
- Is the Measurement System stable over time?
- Is the Measurement System "capable" for this study?
- How much uncertainty should be attached to a measurement when interpreting it?
- How do we improve the measurement system?
- Is the data attribute or not?
- Do we need to complete calibration standards ?
- Do we need to complete a destructive G R & R?



Take Aways—Step 3

- Variation in the measurement system will contribute to the observed variation in a process.
- Sources of variation in a measurement system are:
 - gage
 - operator
 - environment
- The resolution is the ability of the gage to see the variation in the process.
 - The gage scale should divide the tolerance into at least ten parts
 - The gage should be accurate: mean close to the true mean of the process, and precise: small variation



The MSA Checklist, Test-Retest Study, and Gage Reproducibility and Repeatability study are used to validate a measurement system.

- The key word in the Test-Retest Study is "same."
 - The same operator should use the same gage to measure the same specimen repeatedly
 - The calculated standard deviation from the repeated measurements should not be greater than ten percent of the tolerance width
- The Gage Reproducibility and Repeatability Study is a more detailed study of the measurement system.
 - repeatability (equipment variation or EV)
 - reproducibility (appraiser variation or AV)

Take Aways - Step 3

- Short form Gage R and R provides a quick way of determining acceptability of gage variations.
- However, short form Gage R & R does not provide a way of separating gage repeatability and reproducibility.

- The ANOVA method of Gage R & R is the better method to determine this since, it separates interaction effects, better determines causality, and aids in the variability reduction of continuous data.
- Attribute/ Discrete data requires the use of the attribute R & R tool.
- Destructive Gage R & R Avoid it! Is there a better way to turn a destructive test into a non-destructive gage R&R study?
- —Can the part be divided up so that each piece is identical and so allow you to capture a true replicate?

Take Aways-Step 3

 Can you test a different, but similar part that won't be destroyed?

- Is there a different gage that won't destroy the part yet gives similar analysis?
- If you must conduct Destructive Gage R&R...remember that sample variability gets confounded (combined) with operator and the gage. Therefore <u>minimize sample variability</u> as much as possible!



- Identify the Measurable Customer CTQ
- Define and Confirm Specifications for the Y

96)

 Ensure Measurement System is Adequate to Measure Y

Introduction to the Analyze Phase

96)

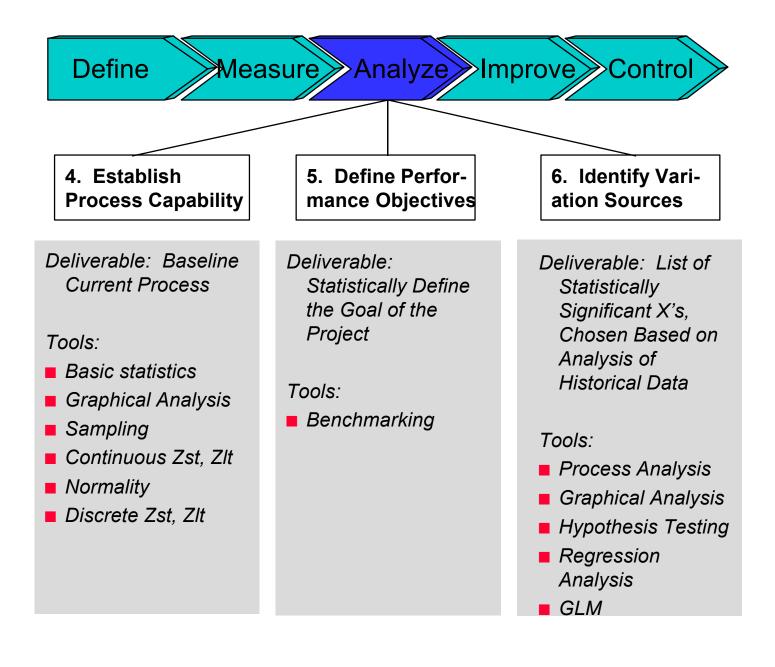
Using Statistics to Solve Problems The 12 Step Process



The 12 Step Process

Step Define	Description	Focus	Tools	SSQC Deliverables
A B C	Identify Project CTQs Develop Team Charter Define Process Map			Project CTQs (1) Approved Charter (2) High Level Process Map (3)
Measur 1	e Select CTQ	Y	Customer, QFD, FMEA	Project Y (4)
	Characteristics			
2	Define Performance Standards	Y	Customer, Blueprints	Performance Standard for Project Y (5)
3	Measurement System Analysis	Y	Continuous Gage R&R, Test/Retest, Attribute R&R	Data Collection Plan & MSA (6), Data for Project Y (7)
Analyze				
4	Establish Process Capability	Y	Capability Indices	Process Capability for Project Y (8)
5	Define Performance Objectives	Y	Team, Benchmarking	Improvement Goal for Project Y (9)
6	Identify Variation Sources	Х	Process Analysis, Graphical Analysis, Hypothesis Tests	Prioritized List of all Xs (10)
Improve				
7 8	Screen Potential Causes Discover Variable Relationships	X X	DOE-Screening Factorial Designs	List of Vital Few Xs (11) Proposed Solution (13)
9	Establish Operating Tolerances	Υ, Χ	Simulation	Piloted Solution (14)
Control				
10	Define & Validate Measurement System on X's in Actual Application	Υ, Χ	Continuous Gage R&R, Test/Retest, Attribute R&R	MSA
11	Determine Process Capability	Υ, Χ	Capability Indices	Process Capability Y, X (15)
12	Implement Process Control	Х	Control Charts, Mistake Proof, FMEA	Sustained Solution (15), Documentation (16),

Analyze Phase

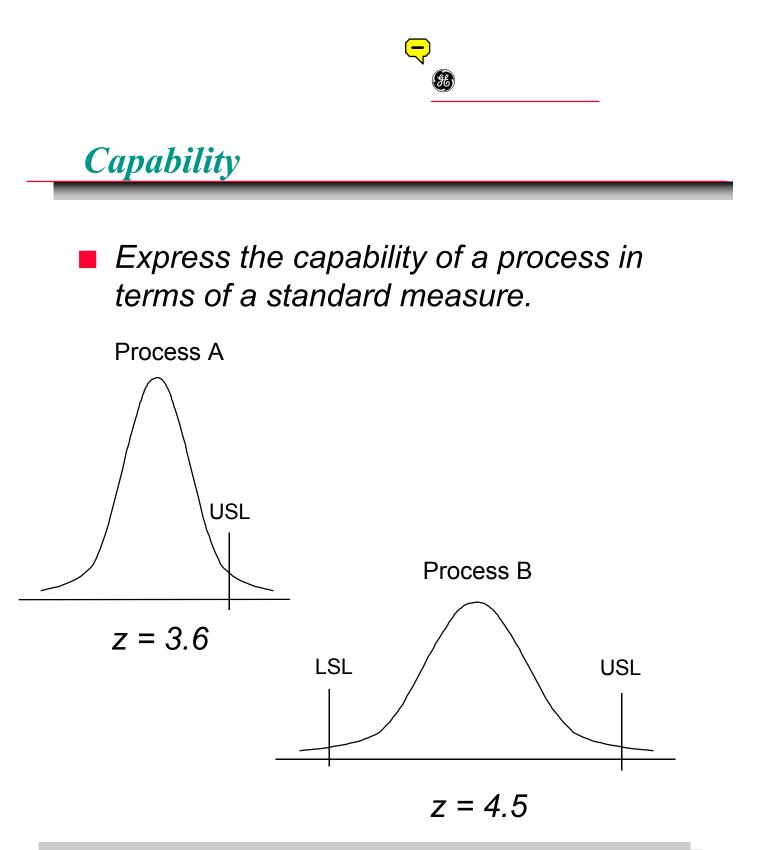


Æ



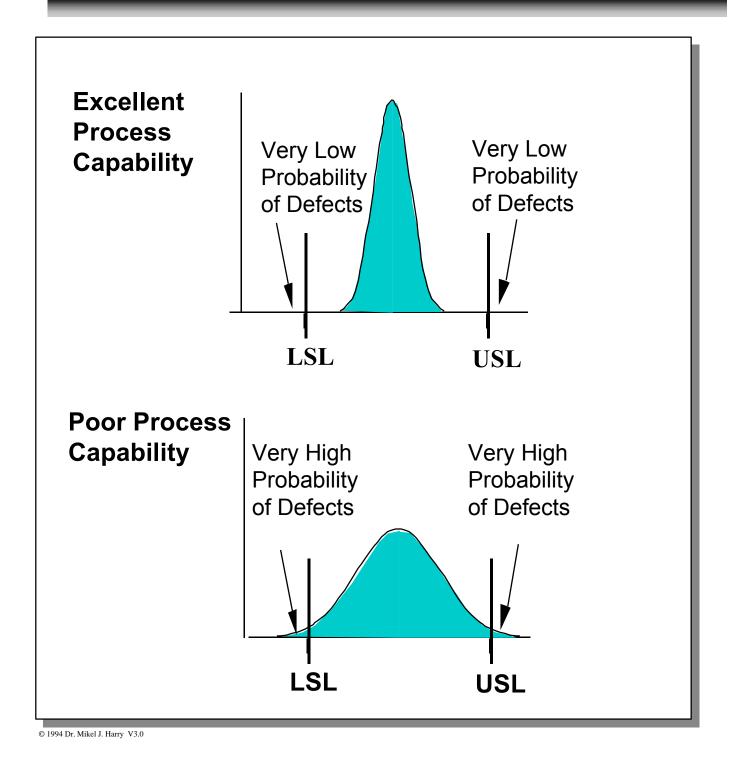
At the end of this section the student will be able to:

- establish the capability of the process
- establish an improvement goal—the performance objective
- study the stability, shape, center, and spread of the process
- determine the vital Xs that impact the project Y
- make recommendations for the Improve phase



Is process B more capable than Process A?

Process Capability

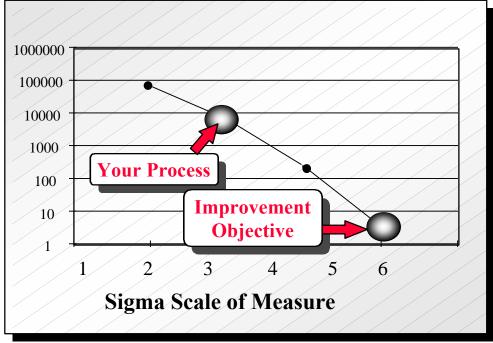


H

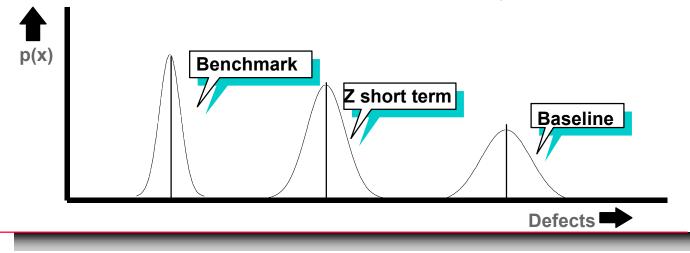


The Performance Objective





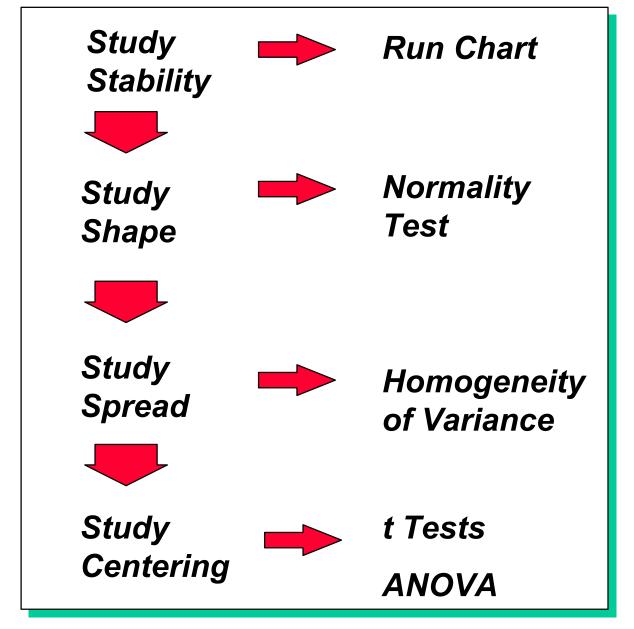
Depending on your current baseline and process entitlement, set realistic and achievable improvement goals.



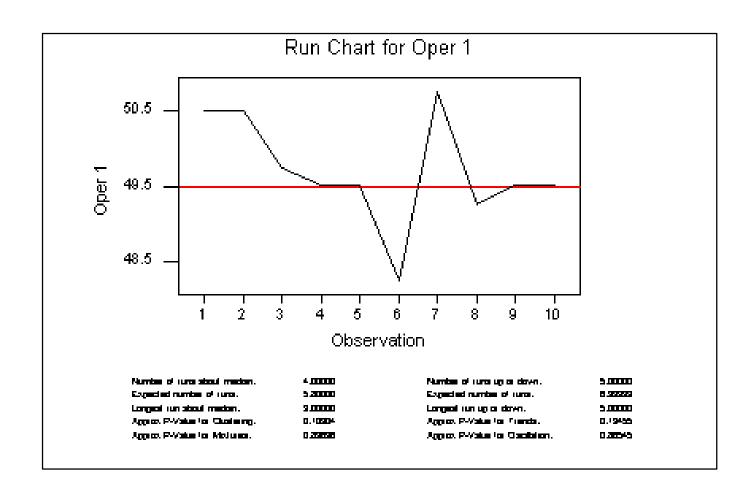


Understanding our Process

To understand our current process, analyze the data.



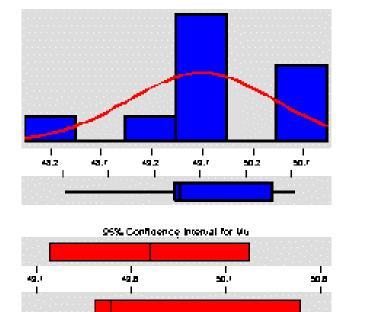
Study Stability



(H)

Understand your current process
Try to find special causes of variation
Look at the data over time: run chart
How stable is your process?





95% Confidence Interval for Veglan

Descriptive Statistics

(H)

Variable: Oper 1

Anderson-Dailing Komiality Test

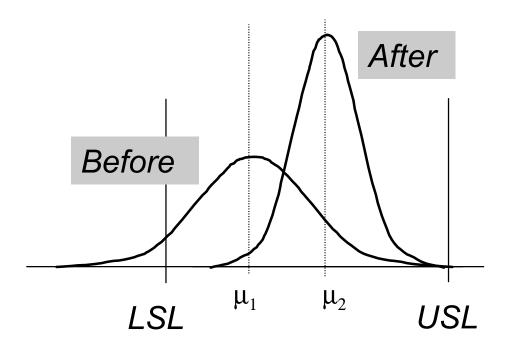
0.556 A-Souareo: P-Value: 0.113 49,7000 Wean StDev 0.7341 Variance 0.538880 Skownoss -3.SE-01 Kurtosis -0.547827 ы 10 Winimum. 48,2500 1st Quardle 40 4175 Wealan. 49.5000 3ro Ouardie 50,5000

Waximum 50,7500 95% Confidence Interval for Wu 40,1740 50,2251 95% Confidence Interval for Sigma 0,5040 1,3402 95% Confidence Interval for Vedian 40,4144 50,5000

- Determine the mean and variation of your process.
 - what special causes may be leading to these values?
- Determine if the data is normally distributed
 - if no, why not?



Study Center & Spread

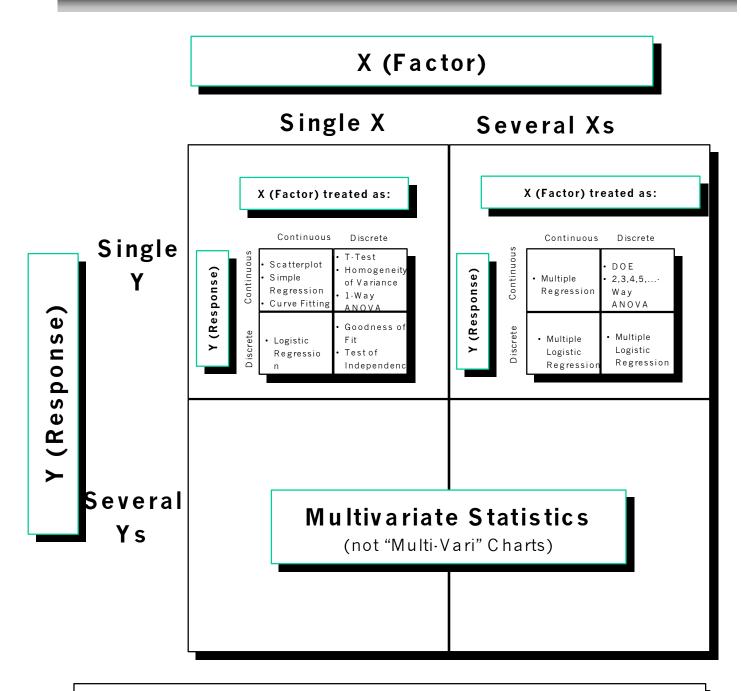


- Changing one or more vital Xs in the process may affect the mean and the variation of the process Y.
- We can statistically show that the mean and the variation of the process has shifted by using hypothesis tests.

Goal: To reduce variation and get process on target



Analyzing the Data



The correct tool depends upon the data

Analyze Deliverables

Review defect definition, target, and LSL & USL

(H)

- Establish Baseline Process Capability
- Is there a statistically significant difference between the Xs?
- Review results with team members
- Establish Financial Baseline

Discrete

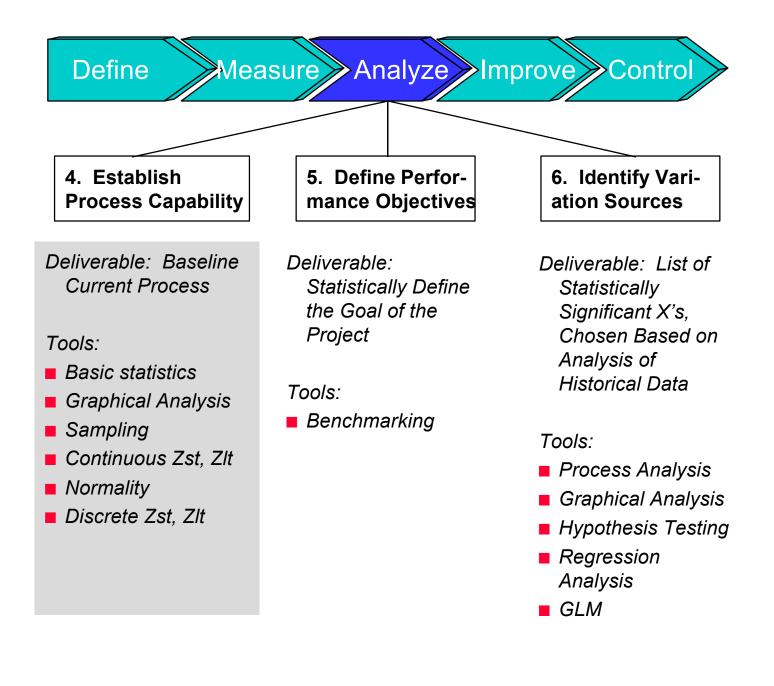
- L1 Spreadsheet or Minitab Product Report
- Chi-square Test

Continuous

- Minitab Process Capability
- Normality Test
- 2 sample t-test or ANOVA
- Homogeneity of Variance Tests
- Regression Analysis



Analyze Phase



Establish Process Capability Objectives

Step 4: Establish Process Capability

(H)

By the end of Step 4, the BB/GB will have:

- a. Calculated the baseline capability of the process using either continuous or discrete data.
- b. Conducted a normality test to verify the data is normally distributed.

Continuous Data Objectives

- By the end of the training program, the participant will be able to:
 - Use continuous data to describe their process by its average, standard deviation and normal curve

¥6)

- Understand the relevance of specifications created by product/process designers (target values, upper and lower specification limits)
- Apply statistical principles of the Standard Normal Probability Distribution to predict the probability of a defect and process capability
- Perform basic functions of Minitab: navigate within the menus, calculate 6s statistics, produce 6s reports, and load data files

Statistics

Statistics is concerned with making inferences about general populations and about characteristics of general populations.

(H)

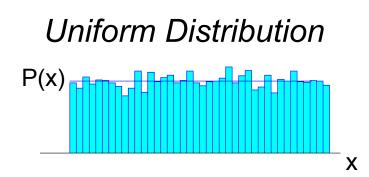
- We study outcomes of random experiments.
- If a particular outcome is not known in advance, then we do not know the exact value assigned to the variable of that outcome.
 - the number of invoices received weekly
 - the cost in dollars of reworking each part
 - the number of surfaces that are rough on a cast part
 - the number of calls received every Monday between the hours of 8-9 a.m.

We call such a value a random variable.



A random variable can be expressed in terms of a distribution.

¥6)



Triangular Distribution

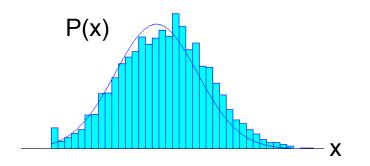
All permissible values are equally likely

Approximates many processes and may take on shape of many distributions





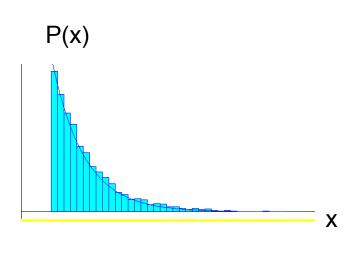
Normal Distribution



Process/repair times

Error fluctuations about an operating point

Exponential Distribution



Time between Arrivals

Time between random (unrelated) failures

Events with no memory from one to the next



Generating Distributions

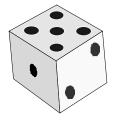
- Distributions are the result of random events.
- Examine probabilities
- Probability that an event will occur:

Number of favorable outcomes Total number of outcomes





Example 1



Rolling one Fair DIE:

- What's the probability of rolling a 3 ... P(X=3)?
- What's the probability of rolling an even number ... P(X is even)?
- What's the probability of rolling a number > 4 ... P(X>4)?
- What's the probability of rolling a number >=4 ... P(X>=4)?



Probability - Two Fair Dice

Example 2

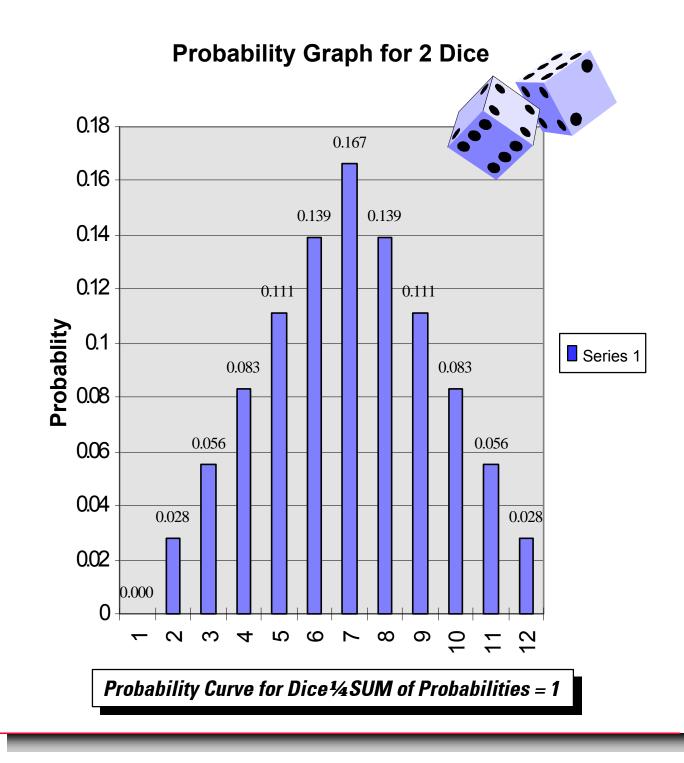


Rolling TWO Fair DICE:

- What's the probability of rolling a 3 ... P(x=3)?
- What's the probability of rolling an even number ... P(x is even)?
- What's the probability of rolling a number >4... P(X>4)?
- What's the probability of rolling a number >=4 ... P(X>=4)?

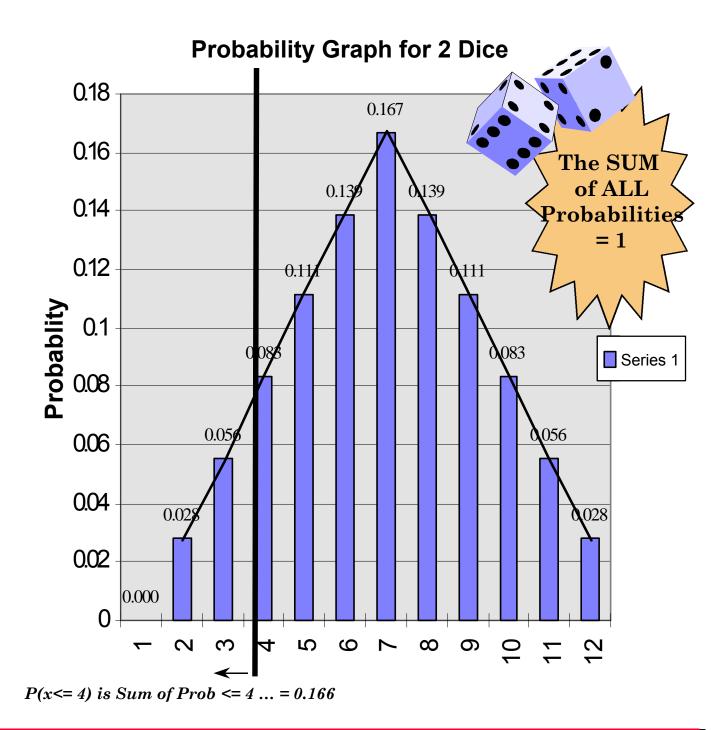
Probability Curve - Two Fair Dice

96)



Probability Curve - Two Fair Dice

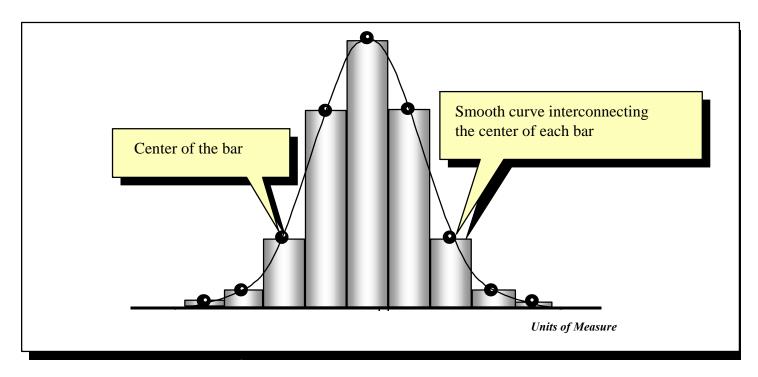
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Forming the Normal Curve

Our Focus

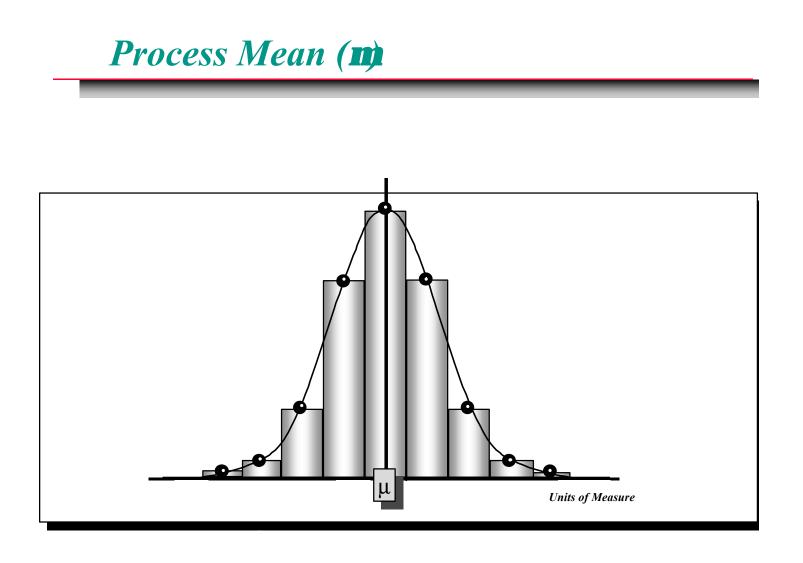
¥6)



The Normal Curve is a graphical representation of the mathematical expression used to describe a Normal Distribution. This distribution is the result of a process experiencing only random variation.

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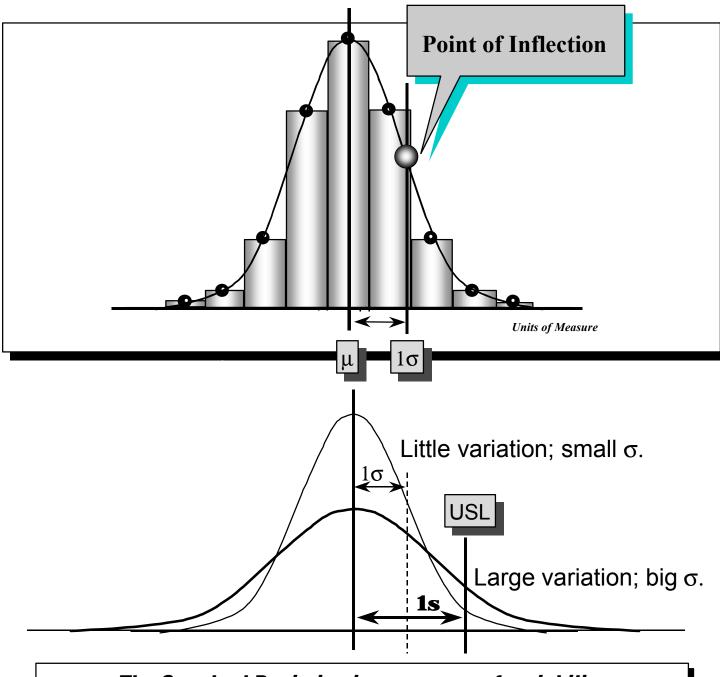
Establish Process Capability



%

The Mean is the average of the data points. The Normal Curve is symmetrical about the Mean.

Standard Deviation (S)

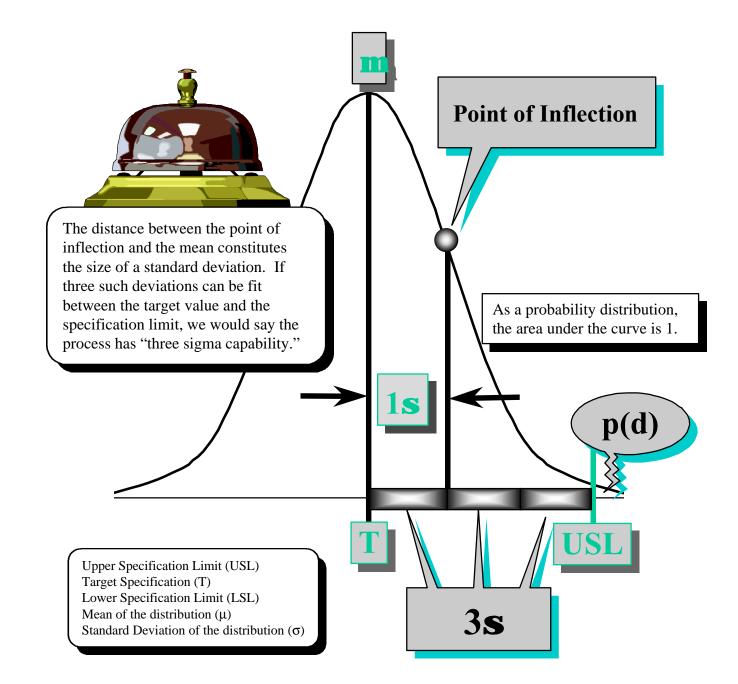


The Standard Deviation is a measure of variability.

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The Normal Distribution



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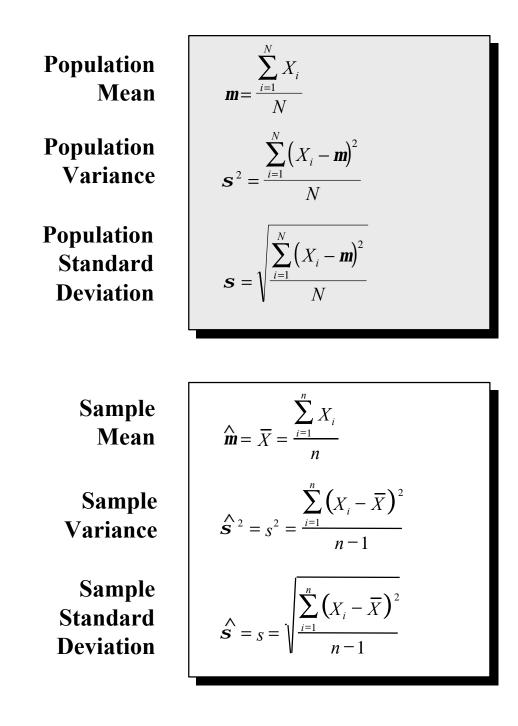
m(mu), a measure of **central tendency**, is the mean or average of all values in the population. When only a sample of the population is described, mean is more properly denoted by \overline{x} (x bar).

s (sigma) is a measure of *dispersion or variability*. With smaller values of *s*, all values in the population lie closer to the mean. When only a sample of the population is described, standard deviation is more properly denoted by s.

Both m and s are specific values for any given population, and they change as the members of the population vary.



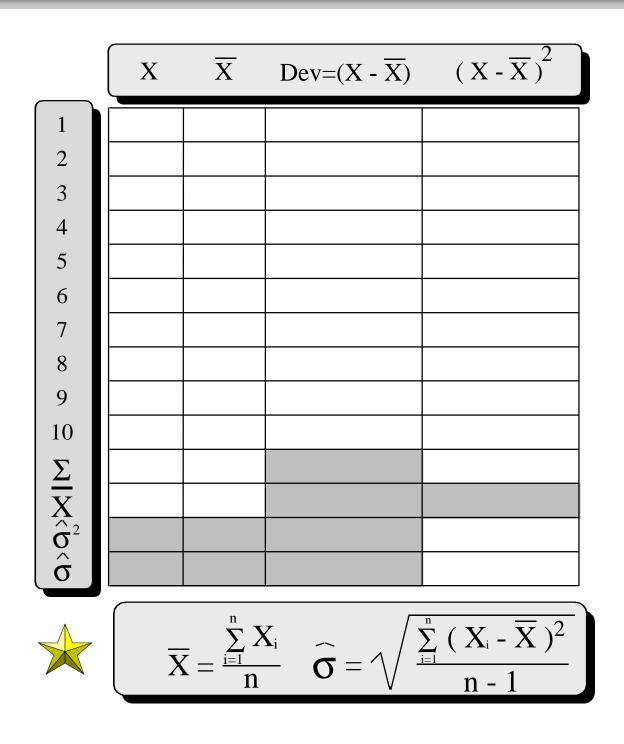
The Computational Equations



Exercise: Standard Deviation & Measures of Variation

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96)





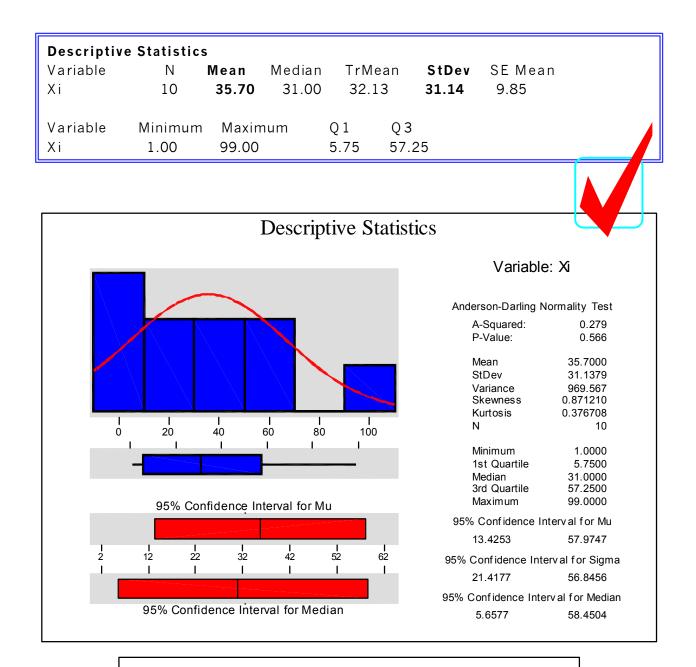
Random data ("1" to "99", n = 10 samples):									
n	Xi	Xbar	Dev =(Xi-Xbar)	(Xi-Xbar)^2					
1	20	35.7	-15.70	246.49					
2	1	35.7	-34.70	1204.09					
3	6	35.7	-29.70	882.09					
4	35	35.7	-0.70	0.49					
5	54	35.7	18.30	334.89					
6	67	35.7	31.30	979.69					
7	43	35.7	7.30	53.29					
8	99	35.7	63.30	4006.89					
9	5	35.7	-30.70	942.49					
10	27	35.7	-8.70	75.69					
	 357		0.0	8726.10					

Results & Take-Aways:

- Deviation = <u>measure</u> of *Variation*, measure of *Spread*
- SST = 8726.1 ... large Deviations = large SST
- Variance = "Average" SST = SST/df [df = deg. of freedom = n-1] s^2 = Sample Variance = SST/9 = 969.6 σ^2 = Population Variance = SST/10 = 872.6
- Standard Deviation = Square Root of Variance: Sample StDev = s = $\sqrt{969.6}$ = 31.1 Population SD = σ = $\sqrt{872.6}$ = 29.5

<u>It's all Variation</u> ... Deviation, SST, Variance, & Standard Deviation = Measures of Spread

Check: via Descriptive Statistics Tool



Minitab Descriptive Statistics give <u>sample</u> Variance & Standard Deviation

Establish Process Capability

Summary—Measures of Variation:

- Range = (Max Min)
- **Deviation = (Xi Xbar)** [Xbar = mean or mu]
- Sum-of-Squares (of the squared Deviations) = SST
- Variance = Average SST = SST/df (df = degress of freedom)
- Std Deviation = SqrRoot (Variance) and
- Coeff. of Variation = CV = (StDev/Xbar)* 100 i.e., ratio of StDev to Mean—expressed as %

SST is key concept in 'measuring' variation.

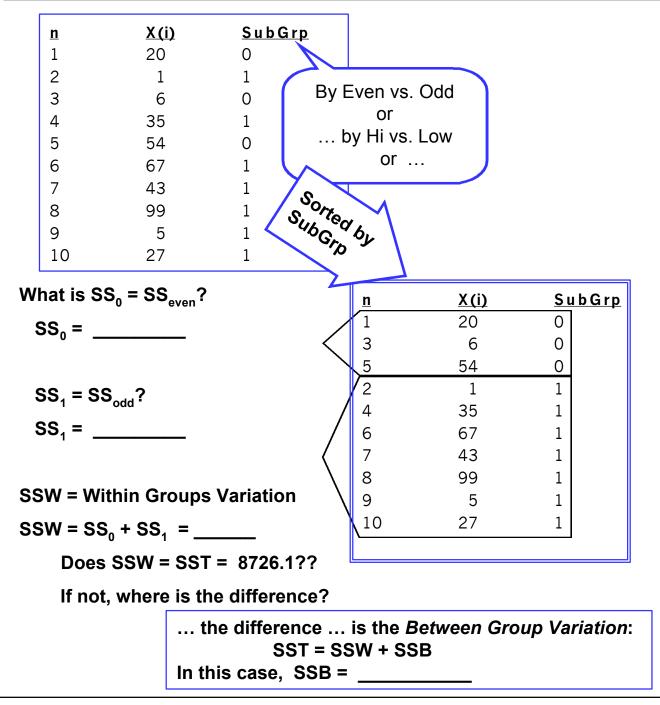
The greater SST, the greater the variation.

SST is **always conserved**: given a set of numbers (data), it is fixed & unchanging.

SST can be allocated to different COMPONENTS OF VARIATION -- i.e., Within and Between Group.

> COMPONENTS OF VARIATION ... the KEY IDEA for <u>Process Centering</u> and ANOVA

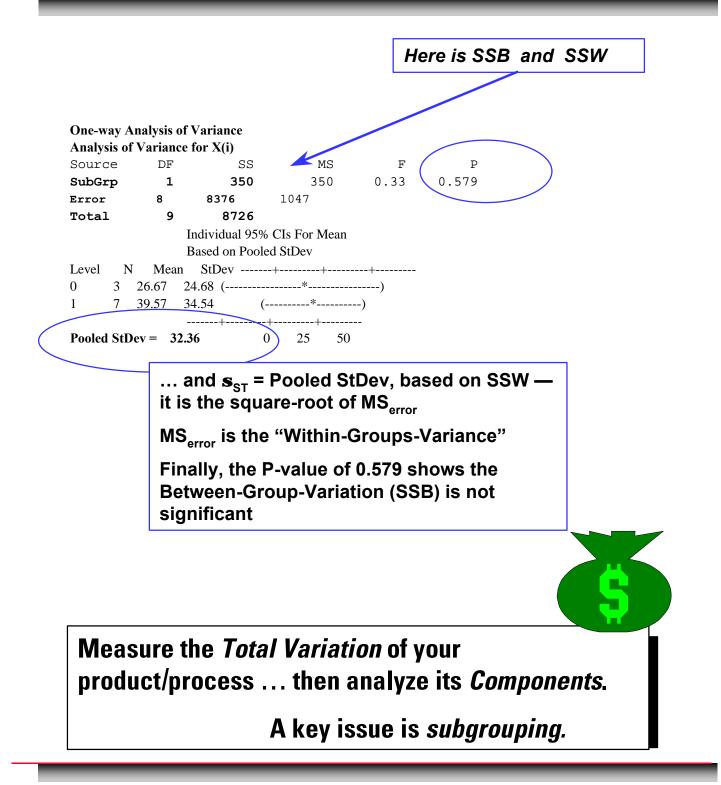
Components of Variation ... how can we subgroup the data?



SST is conserved and may be allocated to COMPONENTS OF VARIATION



Components of Variation ...and ANOVA 34a different view

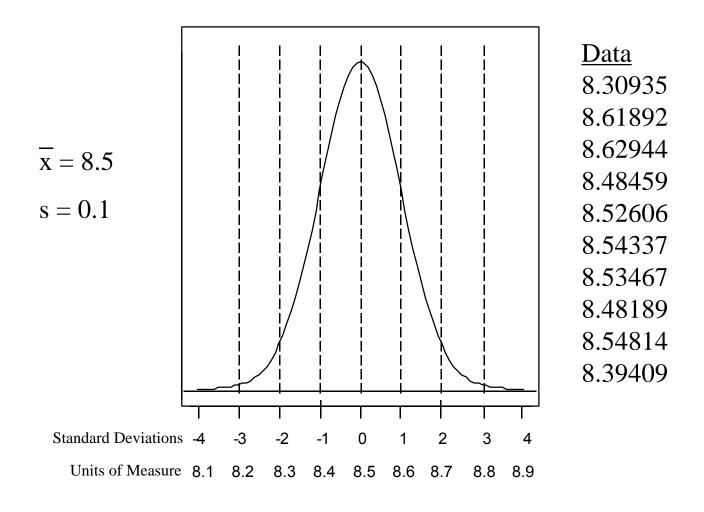




The Normal Distribution

- Generated as a result of a process experiencing random variation.
- Characterized by mean, **m**, and standard deviation, **s**.
- All normal distributions can be related to the standard normal distribution with mean 0 and standard deviation 1.

(H)

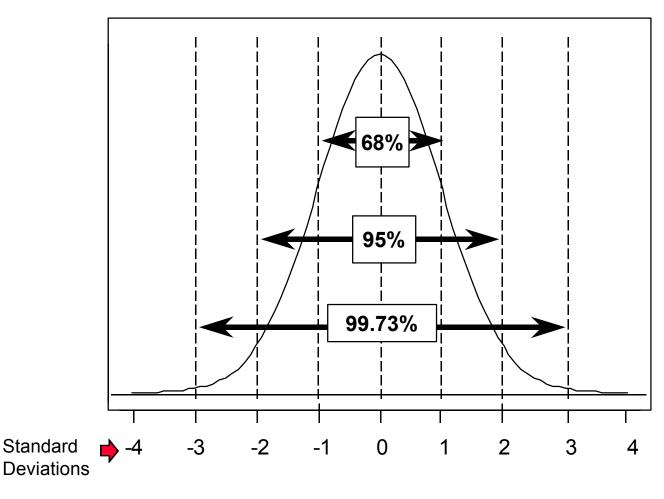


The x-axis can be represented by units of standard deviations or units of measure.

Establish Process Capability

Normal Curve & Probability Areas Area Under the Curve = 1

(H)



Output

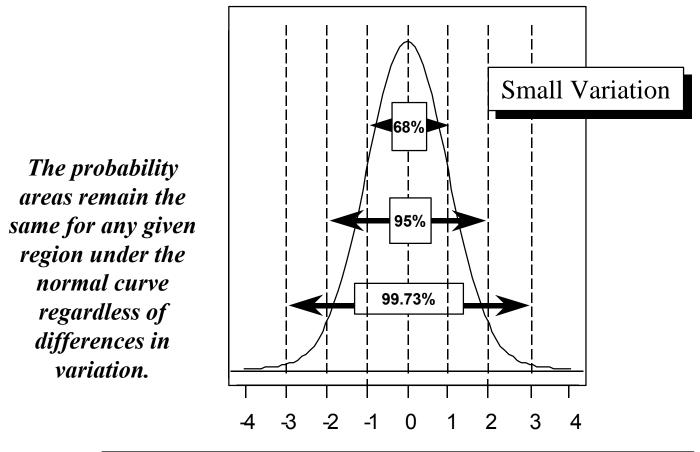
A randomly selected item has a 99.73% chance of being between -3 and 3 standard deviations from the mean.

What's the probability of being: greater than (less than) the mean?

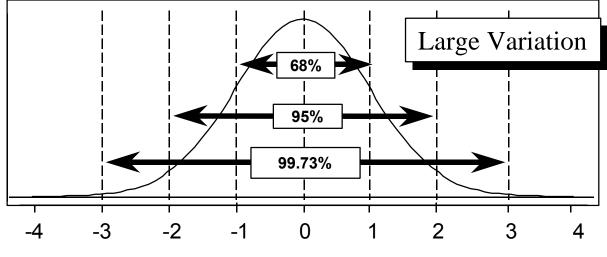
greater than (less than) 3 standard deviations?

greater than (less than) -1 standard deviation?

Variation & Probability Areas



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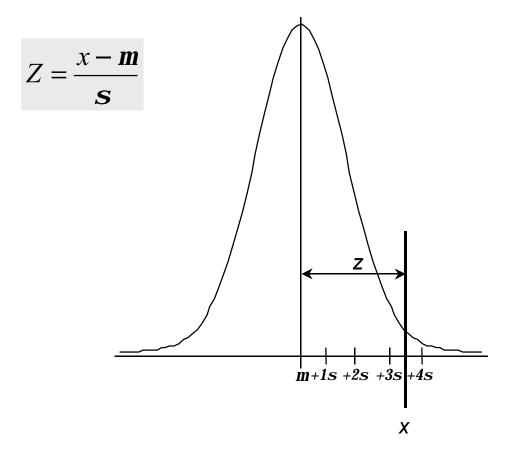


Establish Process Capability

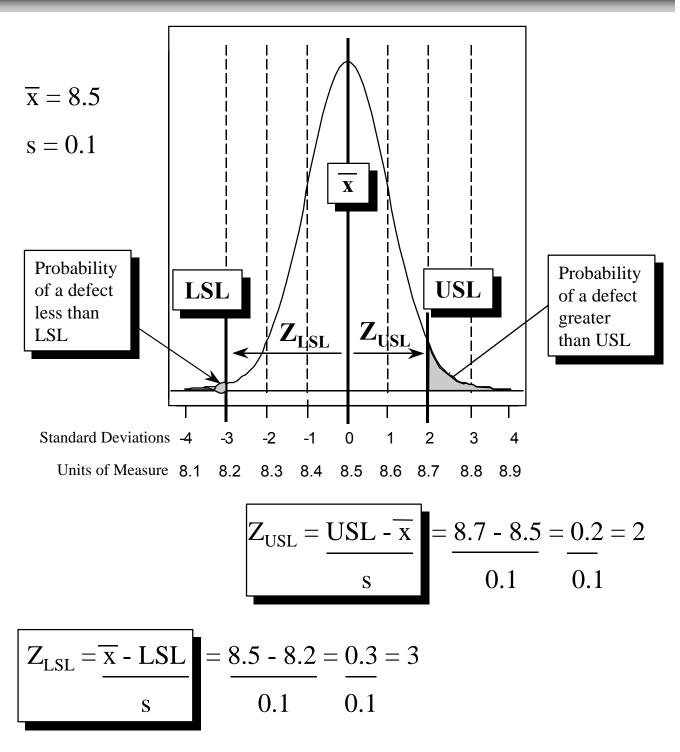




You can calculate a Z value for any given value of x. Z is the number of standard deviations which will fit between the mean and the value of x.



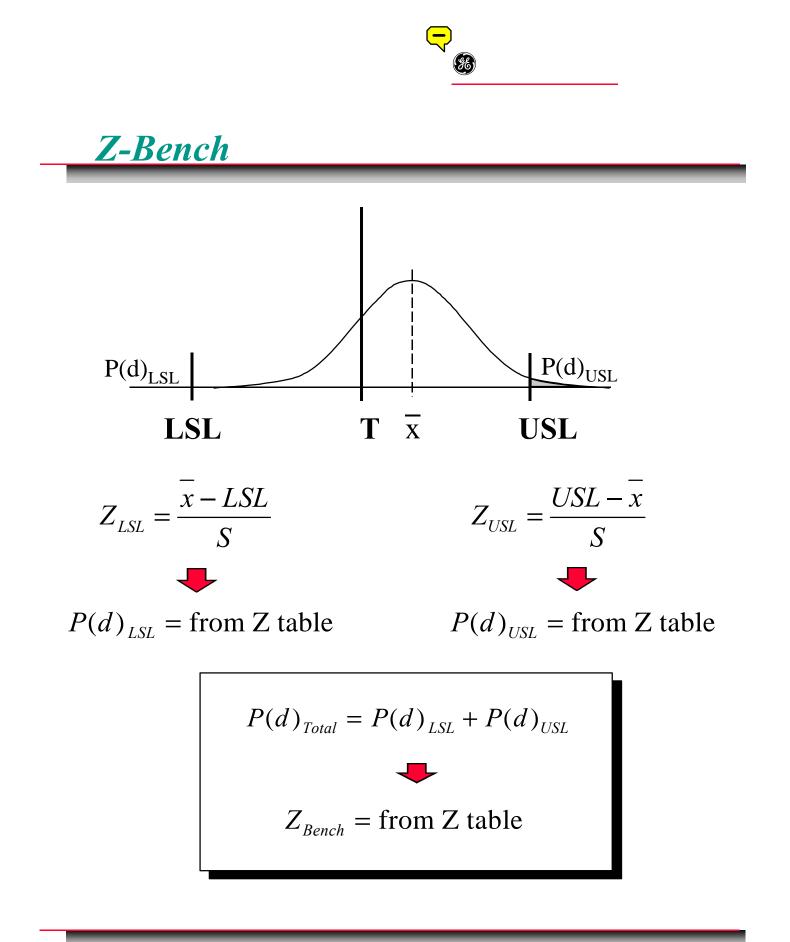




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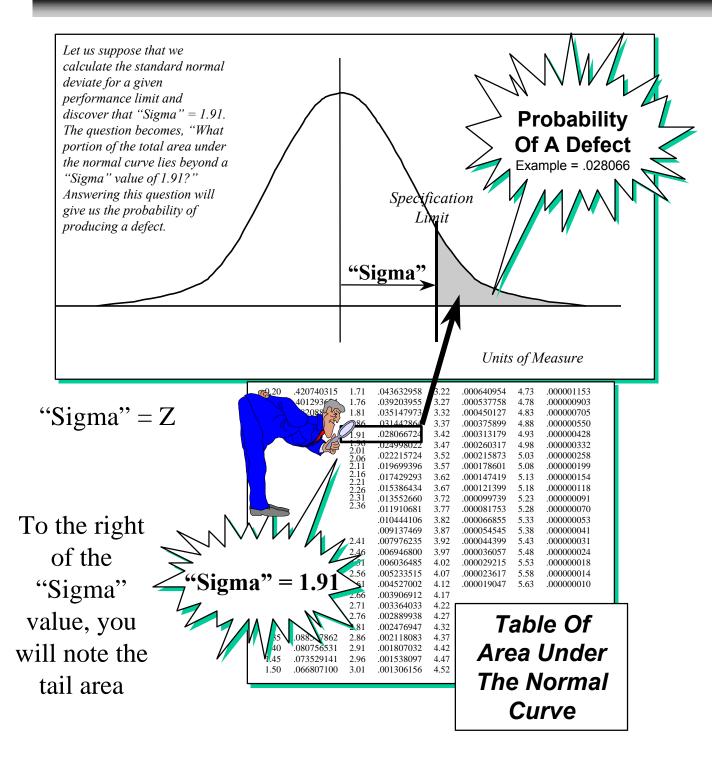
Establish Process Capability

Version 4 3/01



Establish Process Capability

Probability of a Defect



%

Establish Process Capability

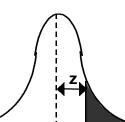


Single-Tail Z Table

(Values of Z from 0.00 to 4.99)

Ζ	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.09
0.00	5.00e-001	4.96e-001	4.92e-001	4.88e-001	4.84e-001	4.80e-001	4.76e-001	4.72e-001	4.68e-001	4.64e-001
0.10	4.60e-001	4.56e-001	4.52e-001	4.48e-001	4.44e-001	4.40e-001	4.36e-001	4.33e-001	4.29e-001	4.25e-001
0.20	4.21e-001	4.17e-001	4.13e-001	4.09e-001	4.05e-001	4.01e-001	3.97e-001	3.94e-001	3.90e-001	3.86e-001
0.30	3.82e-001	3.78e-001	3.74e-001	3.71e-001	3.67e-001	3.63e-001	3.59e-001	3.56e-001	3.52e-001	3.48e-001
0.40	3.45e-001	3.41e-001	3.37e-001	3.34e-001	3.30e-001	3.26e-001	3.23e-001	3.19e-001	3.16e-001	3.12e-001
0.50	3.09e-001	3.05e-001	3.02e-001	2.98e-001	2.95e-001	2.91e-001	2.88e-001	2.84e-001	2.81e-001	2.78e-001
0.60	2.74e-001	2.71e-001	2.68e-001	2.64e-001	2.61e-001	2.58e-001	2.55e-001	2.51e-001	2.48e-001	2.45e-001
0.70 0.80	2.42e-001 2.12e-001	2.39e-001 2.09e-001	2.36e-001	2.33e-001 2.03e-001	2.30e-001	2.27e-001 1.98e-001	2.24e-001 1.95e-001	2.21e-001 1.92e-001	2.18e-001	2.15e-001
0.80	1.84e-001	1.81e-001	2.06e-001 1.79e-001	1.76e-001	2.00e-001 1.74e-001	1.71e-001	1.69e-001	1.66e-001	1.89e-001 1.64e-001	1.87e-001 1.61e-001
0.50	1.046-001	1.016-001	1.796-001	1.700-001	1.740-001	1.716-001	1.096-001	1.000-001	1.046-001	1.016-001
1.00	1.59e-001	1.56e-001	1.54e-001	1.52e-001	1.49e-001	1.47e-001	1.45e-001	1.42e-001	1.40e-001	1.38e-001
1.10	1.36e-001	1.33e-001	1.31e-001	1.29e-001	1.27e-001	1.25e-001	1.23e-001	1.21e-001	1.19e-001	1.17e-001
1.20	1.15e-001	1.13e-001	1.11e-001	1.09e-001	1.07e-001	1.06e-001	1.04e-001	1.02e-001	1.00e-001	9.85e-002
1.30	9.68e-002	9.51e-002	9.34e-002	9.18e-002	9.01e-002	8.85e-002	8.69e-002	8.53e-002	8.38e-002	8.23e-002
1.40	8.08e-002	7.93e-002	7.78e-002	7.64e-002	7.49e-002	7.35e-002	7.21e-002	7.08e-002	6.94e-002	6.81e-002
1.50	6.68e-002	6.55e-002	6.43e-002	6.30e-002	6.18e-002	6.06e-002	5.94e-002	5.82e-002	5.71e-002	5.59e-002
1.60 1.70	5.48e-002	5.37e-002	5.26e-002	5.16e-002	5.05e-002	4.95e-002	4.85e-002	4.75e-002	4.65e-002	4.55e-002
1.80	4.46e-002 3.59e-002	4.36e-002 3.51e-002	4.27e-002 3.44e-002	4.18e-002 3.36e-002	4.09e-002 3.29e-002	4.01e-002 3.22e-002	3.92e-002 3.14e-002	3.84e-002 3.07e-002	3.75e-002 3.01e-002	3.67e-002 2.94e-002
1.90	2.87e-002	2.81e-002	2.74e-002	2.68e-002	2.62e-002	2.56e-002	2.50e-002	2.44e-002	2.39e-002	2.34e-002 2.33e-002
	2.076-002	2.010-002	2.740-002	2.000-002	2.026-002	2.506-002	2.506-002	2.440-002	2.396-002	2.336-002
2.00	2.28e-002	2.22e-002	2.17e-002	2.12e-002	2.07e-002	2.02e-002	1.97e-002	1.92e-002	1.88e-002	1.83e-002
2.10	1.79e-002	1.74e-002	1.70e-002	1.66e-002	1.62e-002	1.58e-002	1.54e-002	1.50e-002	1.46e-002	1.43e-002
2.20	1.39e-002	1.36e-002	1.32e-002	1.29e-002	1.25e-002	1.22e-002	1.19e-002	1.16e-002	1.13e-002	1.10e-002
2.30	1.07e-002	1.04e-002	1.02e-002	9.90e-003	9.64e-003	9.39e-003	9.14e-003	8.89e-003	8.66e-003	8.42e-003
2.40	8.20e-003	7.98e-003	7.76e-003	7.55e-003	7.34e-003	7.14e-003	6.95e-003	6.76e-003	6.57e-003	6.39e-003
2.50	6.21e-003	6.04e-003	5.87e-003	5.70e-003	5.54e-003	5.39e-003	5.23e-003	5.08e-003	4.94e-003	4.80e-003
2.60	4.66e-003	4.53e-003	4.40e-003	4.27e-003	4.15e-003	4.02e-003	3.91e-003	3.79e-003	3.68e-003	3.57e-003
2.70 2.80	3.47e-003	3.36e-003	3.26e-003	3.17e-003	3.07e-003	2.98e-003	2.89e-003	2.80e-003	2.72e-003	2.64e-003
2.80	2.56e-003 1.87e-003	2.48e-003 1.81e-003	2.40e-003 1.75e-003	2.33e-003 1.69e-003	2.26e-003 1.64e-003	2.19e-003 1.59e-003	2.12e-003 1.54e-003	2.05e-003 1.49e-003	1.99e-003 1.44e-003	1.93e-003 1.39e-003
	1.07 - 003	1.010-005	1.756-005	1.030-003	1.040-000	1.536-005	1.546-005	1.436-003	1.440-003	1.556-005
3.00	1.35e-003	1.31e-003	1.26e-003	1.22e-003	1.18e-003	1.14e-003	1.11e-003	1.07e-003	1.04e-003	1.00e-003
3.10	9.68e-004	9.35e-004	9.04e-004	8.74e-004	8.45e-004	8.16e-004	7.89e-004	7.62e-004	7.36e-004	7.11e-004
3.20	6.87e-004	6.64e-004	6.41e-004	6.19e-004	5.98e-004	5.77e-004	5.57e-004	5.38e-004	5.19e-004	5.01e-004
3.30	4.83e-004	4.66e-004	4.50e-004	4.34e-004	4.19e-004	4.04e-004	3.90e-004	3.76e-004	3.62e-004	3.49e-004
3.40	3.37e-004	3.25e-004	3.13e-004	3.02e-004	2.91e-004	2.80e-004	2.70e-004	2.60e-004	2.51e-004	2.42e-004
3.50	2.33e-004	2.24e-004	2.16e-004	2.08e-004	2.00e-004	1.93e-004	1.85e-004	1.78e-004	1.72e-004	1.65e-004
3.60 3.70	1.59e-004	1.53e-004	1.47e-004	1.42e-004	1.36e-004	1.31e-004	1.26e-004	1.21e-004	1.17e-004	1.12e-004 7.53e-005
3.80	1.08e-004 7.23e-005	1.04e-004	9.96e-005 6.67e-005	9.57e-005	9.20e-005	8.84e-005 5.91e-005	8.50e-005 5.67e-005	8.16e-005	7.84e-005	7.53e-005 5.01e-005
3.80	4.81e-005	6.95e-005 4.61e-005	4.43e-005	6.41e-005 4.25e-005	6.15e-005 4.07e-005	3.91e-005	3.75e-005	5.44e-005 3.59e-005	5.22e-005 3.45e-005	3.30e-005
	4.010-000	4.010-000		4.200-000	4.070-000	0.010-000	0.100-000	0.000-000	0.400-000	0.000-000
4.00	3.17e-005	3.04e-005	2.91e-005	2.79e-005	2.67e-005	2.56e-005	2.45e-005	2.35e-005	2.25e-005	2.16e-005
4.10	2.07e-005	1.98e-005	1.89e-005	1.81e-005	1.74e-005	1.66e-005	1.59e-005	1.52e-005	1.46e-005	1.39e-005
4.20	1.33e-005	1.28e-005	1.22e-005	1.17e-005	1.12e-005	1.07e-005	1.02e-005	9.77e-006	9.34e-006	8.93e-006
4.30	8.54e-006	8.16e-006	7.80e-006	7.46e-006	7.12e-006	6.81e-006	6.50e-006	6.21e-006	5.93e-006	5.67e-006
4.40	5.41e-006	5.17e-006	4.94e-006	4.71e-006	4.50e-006	4.29e-006	4.10e-006	3.91e-006	3.73e-006	3.56e-006
4.50 4.60	3.40e-006	3.24e-006	3.09e-006	2.95e-006	2.81e-006	2.68e-006	2.56e-006	2.44e-006	2.32e-006	2.22e-006
4.60	2.11e-006	2.01e-006	1.92e-006	1.83e-006	1.74e-006	1.66e-006	1.58e-006	1.51e-006	1.43e-006	1.37e-006 8 34e-007
4.70	1.30e-006 7.93e-007	1.24e-006 7.55e-007	1.18e-006 7.18e-007	1.12e-006 6.83e-007	1.07e-006	1.02e-006 6.17e-007	9.68e-007 5.87e-007	9.21e-007 5.58e-007	8.76e-007	8.34e-007 5.04e-007
4.80 4.90	4.79e-007	4.55e-007	4.33e-007	4.11e-007	6.49e-007 3.91e-007	3.71e-007	5.87e-007 3.52e-007	3.35e-007	5.30e-007 3.18e-007	5.04e-007 3.02e-007
4 .30	+./ 38-007	4.558-007	+.558-007	+.11 0 -007	5.518-007	5.718-007	5.528-007	5.55 6 -007	5.108-007	5.028-007

<u>, Z</u>

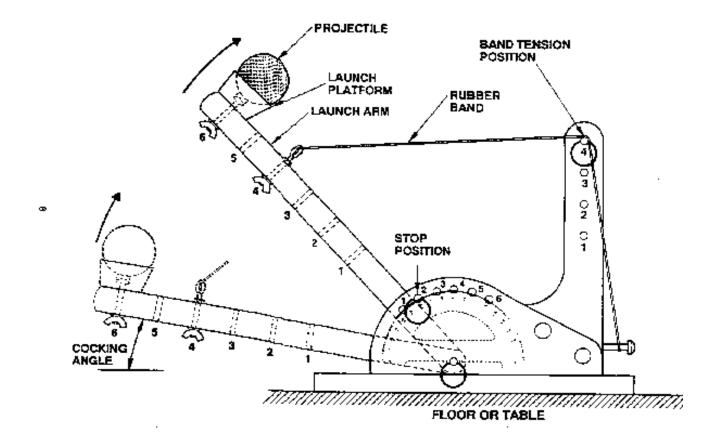


Single-Tail Z Table (Values of Z from 5.00 to 9.99)

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Ζ	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.09
5.00	2.87e-007	2.72e-007	2.58e-007	2.45e-007	2.33e-007	2.21e-007	2.10e-007	1.99e-007	1.89e-007	1.79e-007
5.10	1.70e-007	1.61e-007	1.53e-007	1.45e-007	1.37e-007	1.30e-007	1.23e-007	1.17e-007	1.11e-007	1.05e-007
5.20	9.96e-008	9.44e-008	8.95e-008	8.48e-008	8.03e-008	7.60e-008	7.20e-008	6.82e-008	6.46e-008	6.12e-008
5.30	5.79e-008	5.48e-008	5.19e-008	4.91e-008	4.65e-008	4.40e-008	4.16e-008	3.94e-008	3.72e-008	3.52e-008
5.40	3.33e-008	3.15e-008	2.98e-008	2.82e-008	2.66e-008	2.52e-008	2.38e-008	2.25e-008	2.13e-008	2.01e-008
5.50	1.90e-008	1.79e-008	1.69e-008	1.60e-008	1.51e-008	1.43e-008	1.35e-008	1.27e-008	1.20e-008	1.14e-008
5.60	1.07e-008	1.01e-008	9.55e-009	9.01e-009	8.50e-009	8.02e-009	7.57e-009	7.14e-009	6.73e-009	6.35e-009
5.70	5.99e-009	5.65e-009	5.33e-009	5.02e-009	4.73e-009	4.46e-009	4.21e-009	3.96e-009	3.74e-009	3.52e-009
5.80	3.32e-009	3.12e-009	2.94e-009	2.77e-009	2.61e-009	2.46e-009	2.31e-009	2.18e-009	2.05e-009	1.93e-009
5.90	1.82e-009	1.71e-009	1.61e-009	1.51e-009	1.43e-009	1.34e-009	1.26e-009	1.19e-009	1.12e-009	1.05e-009
6.00	9.87e-010	9.28e-010	8.72e-010	8.20e-010	7.71e-010	7.24e-010	6.81e-010	6.40e-010	6.01e-010	5.65e-010
6.10	5.30e-010	4.98e-010	4.68e-010	4.39e-010	4.13e-010	3.87e-010	3.64e-010	3.41e-010	3.21e-010	3.01e-010
6.20	2.82e-010	2.65e-010	2.49e-010	2.33e-010	2.19e-010	2.05e-010	1.92e-010	1.81e-010	1.69e-010	1.59e-010
6.30	1.49e-010	1.40e-010	1.31e-010	1.23e-010	1.15e-010	1.08e-010	1.01e-010	9.45e-011	8.85e-011	8.29e-011
6.40	7.77e-011	7.28e-011	6.81e-011	6.38e-011	5.97e-011	5.59e-011	5.24e-011	4.90e-011	4.59e-011	4.29e-011
6.50	4.02e-011	3.76e-011	3.52e-011	3.29e-011	3.08e-011	2.88e-011	2.69e-011	2.52e-011	2.35e-011	2.20e-011
6.60	2.06e-011	1.92e-011	1.80e-011	1.68e-011	1.57e-011	1.47e-011	1.37e-011	1.28e-011	1.19e-011	1.12e-011
6.70	1.04e-011	9.73e-012	9.09e-012	8.48e-012	7.92e-012	7.39e-012	6.90e-012	6.44e-012	6.01e-012	5.61e-012
6.80	5.23e-012	4.88e-012	4.55e-012	4.25e-012	3.96e-012	3.69e-012	3.44e-012	3.21e-012	2.99e-012	2.79e-012
6.90	2.60e-012	2.42e-012	2.26e-012	2.10e-012	1.96e-012	1.83e-012	1.70e-012	1.58e-012	1.48e-012	1.37e-012
7.00	1.28e-012	1.19e-012	1.11e-012	1.03e-012	9.61e-013	8.95e-013	8.33e-013	7.75e-013	7.21e-013	6.71e-013
7.10	6.24e-013	5.80e-013	5.40e-013	5.02e-013	4.67e-013	4.34e-013	4.03e-013	3.75e-013	3.49e-013	3.24e-013
7.20	3.01e-013	2.80e-013	2.60e-013	2.41e-013	2.24e-013	2.08e-013	1.94e-013	1.80e-013	1.67e-013	1.55e-013
7.30	1.44e-013	1.34e-013	1.24e-013	1.15e-013	1.07e-013	9.91e-014	9.20e-014	8.53e-014	7.91e-014	7.34e-014
7.40	6.81e-014	6.31e-014	5.86e-014	5.43e-014	5.03e-014	4.67e-014	4.33e-014	4.01e-014	3.72e-014	3.44e-014
7.50	3.19e-014	2.96e-014	2.74e-014	2.54e-014	2.35e-014	2.18e-014	2.02e-014	1.87e-014	1.73e-014	1.60e-014
7.60	1.48e-014	1.37e-014	1.27e-014	1.17e-014	1.09e-014	1.00e-014	9.30e-015	8.60e-015	7.95e-015	7.36e-015
7.70	6.80e-015	6.29e-015	5.82e-015	5.38e-015	4.97e-015	4.59e-015	4.25e-015	3.92e-015	3.63e-015	3.35e-015
7.80	3.10e-015	2.86e-015	2.64e-015	2.44e-015	2.25e-015	2.08e-015	1.92e-015	1.77e-015	1.64e-015	1.51e-015
7.90	1.39e-015	1.29e-015	1.19e-015	1.10e-015	1.01e-015	9.33e-016	8.60e-016	7.93e-016	7.32e-016	6.75e-016
8.00	6.22e-016	5.74e-016	5.29e-016	4.87e-016	4.49e-016	4.14e-016	3.81e-016	3.51e-016	3.24e-016	2.98e-016
8.10	2.75e-016	2.53e-016	2.33e-016	2.15e-016	1.98e-016	1.82e-016	1.68e-016	1.54e-016	1.42e-016	1.31e-016
8.20	1.20e-016	1.11e-016	1.02e-016	9.36e-017	8.61e-017	7.92e-017	7.28e-017	6.70e-017	6.16e-017	5.66e-017
8.30	5.21e-017	4.79e-017	4.40e-017	4.04e-017	3.71e-017	3.41e-017	3.14e-017	2.88e-017	2.65e-017	2.43e-017
8.40	2.23e-017	2.05e-017	1.88e-017	1.73e-017	1.59e-017	1.46e-017	1.34e-017	1.23e-017	1.13e-017	1.03e-017
8.50	9.48e-018	8.70e-018	7.98e-018	7.32e-018	6.71e-018	6.15e-018	5.64e-018	5.17e-018	4.74e-018	4.35e-018
8.60	3.99e-018	3.65e-018	3.35e-018	3.07e-018	2.81e-018	2.57e-018	2.36e-018	2.16e-018	1.98e-018	1.81e-018
8.70	1.66e-018	1.52e-018	1.39e-018	1.27e-018	1.17e-018	1.07e-018	9.76e-019	8.93e-019	8.17e-019	7.48e-019
8.80	6.84e-019	6.26e-019	5.72e-019	5.23e-019	4.79e-019	4.38e-019	4.00e-019	3.66e-019	3.34e-019	3.06e-019
8.90	2.79e-019	2.55e-019	2.33e-019	2.13e-019	1.95e-019	1.78e-019	1.62e-019	1.48e-019	1.35e-019	1.24e-019
9.00	1.13e-019		9.40e-020				6.52e-020			4.95e-020
9.10	4.52e-020	4.12e-020	3.76e-020			2.85e-020	2.59e-020	2.37e-020		1.96e-020
9.20	1.79e-020			1.35e-020	1.23e-020		1.02e-020		8.47e-021	7.71e-021
9.30	7.02e-021	6.39e-021				4.38e-021	3.99e-021	3.63e-021		3.00e-021
9.40	2.73e-021		2.26e-021			1.69e-021	1.54e-021		1.27e-021	1.16e-021
9.50	1.05e-021		8.66e-022				5.89e-022		4.85e-022	
9.60	4.00e-022		3.29e-022				2.23e-022			
9.70	1.51e-022		1.24e-022		1.02e-022		8.36e-023		6.86e-023	6.21e-023
9.80	5.63e-023		4.62e-023			3.43e-023			2.54e-023	
9.90	2.08e-023	1.88e-023	1.70e-023	1.54e-023	1.39e-023	1.26e-023	1.14e-023	1.03e-023	9.32e-024	8.43e-024





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Secure catapult to desk using a C-clamp.

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- Position tape measure to measure from the back of the catapult forward.
- Catapult Settings:
 - Band Tension Position 4
 - Stop Position 2



Catapult Experiment

- A team consists of six members.
- Each team selects two manufacturing engineers. The other members are operators.
- The two manufacturing engineers determine the angle and procedure to consistently hit the distance of 50 inches.
- The manufacturing engineers will instruct the operators about the angle and method to hit the desired distance.
- One manufacturing engineer and four operators will launch the projectile ten (10) times.
- The other manufacturing engineer takes the role of inspector.
- The inspector measures the distances with 1/2 inch resolution without informing the others of the results.
- The inspector enters the results in chronological order into an empty Minitab worksheet.
- The data will be used for statistical analysis.

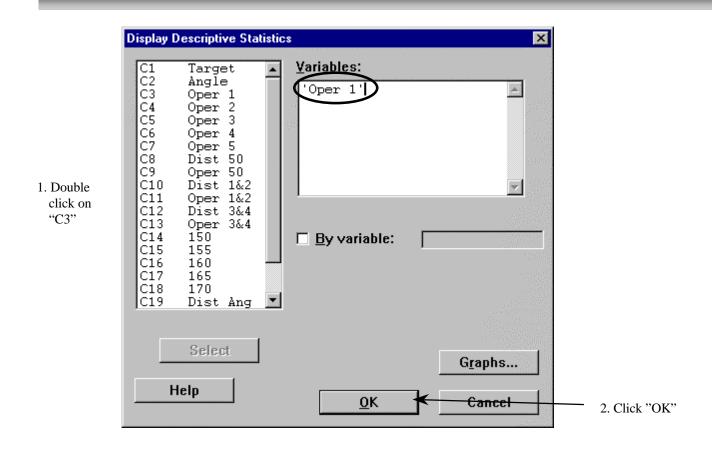
Basic Statistics Calculations - Using Minitab

Basic Statistic Calculations for Catapult data. MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw

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and the second second second	<u>} } ∎</u>	<u>B</u> asic Statistics <u>R</u> egression		<u>D</u> isplay Descripties <u>S</u> tore Descripties Store Descripties (1997)	otive Statistics ve Statistics				
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أحصالهما	ILT.MTW *** C14	C15	C16	C17	C18	C19	C20	C21	► //
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CATAPU ↓	C14 150	C15 155 36.25	160	165	170	Dist Ang	C Angle	D150&170	C22 🔺
CATAPU ↓ 1	C14 150 26.00	C15 155 36.25 36.25	160 44.00	165 53.00	170 62.25	Dist Ang 26.00	C Angle 150	D150&170 26.00	C22 🔺
↓ 1 2	C14 150 26.00 26.00	C15 155 36.25 36.25 36.25 35.75	160 44.00 44.00	165 53.00 52.50	170 62.25 62.50	Dist Ang 26.00 26.00	C Angle 150 150	D150&170 26.00 26.00	C22 🔺
↓ 1 2 3	C14 150 26.00 26.00 26.75	C15 155 36.25 36.25 36.25 35.75 36.25	160 44.00 44.00 44.00	165 53.00 52.50 53.00	170 62.25 62.50 62.00	Dist Ang 26.00 26.00 26.75	C Angle 150 150 150	D150&170 26.00 26.00 26.75	C22 🔺
↓ 1 2 3 4	C14 150 26.00 26.00 26.75 27.50	C15 155 36.25 36.25 35.75 36.25 36.50	160 44.00 44.00 44.00 44.25	165 53.00 52.50 53.00 53.75	170 62.25 62.50 62.00 63.25	Dist Ang 26.00 26.00 26.75 27.50	C Angle 150 150 150 150	D150&170 26.00 26.75 27.50	C22 🔺
↓ 1 2 3 4 5	C14 150 26.00 26.00 26.75 27.50 27.00	C15 155 36.25 36.25 35.75 36.25 36.25 36.50 35.00	160 44.00 44.00 44.00 44.25 43.50	165 53.00 52.50 53.00 53.75 53.25	170 62.25 62.50 62.00 63.25 63.00	Dist Ang 26.00 26.75 27.50 27.00	C Angle 150 150 150 150 150	D150&170 26.00 26.75 27.50 27.00	C22 🔺
↓ 1 2 3 4 5 6	C14 150 26.00 26.75 27.50 27.00 26.75	C15 155 36.25 36.25 35.75 36.25 36.50 35.00 35.00	160 44.00 44.00 44.25 43.50 44.00	165 53.00 52.50 53.00 53.75 53.25 53.25 53.50	170 62.25 62.50 62.00 63.25 63.00 62.75	Dist Ang 26.00 26.75 27.50 27.00 26.75	C Angle 150 150 150 150 150 150	D150&170 26.00 26.75 27.50 27.00 26.75	C22 🔺

Tabular Output of Basic Statistical Calculations



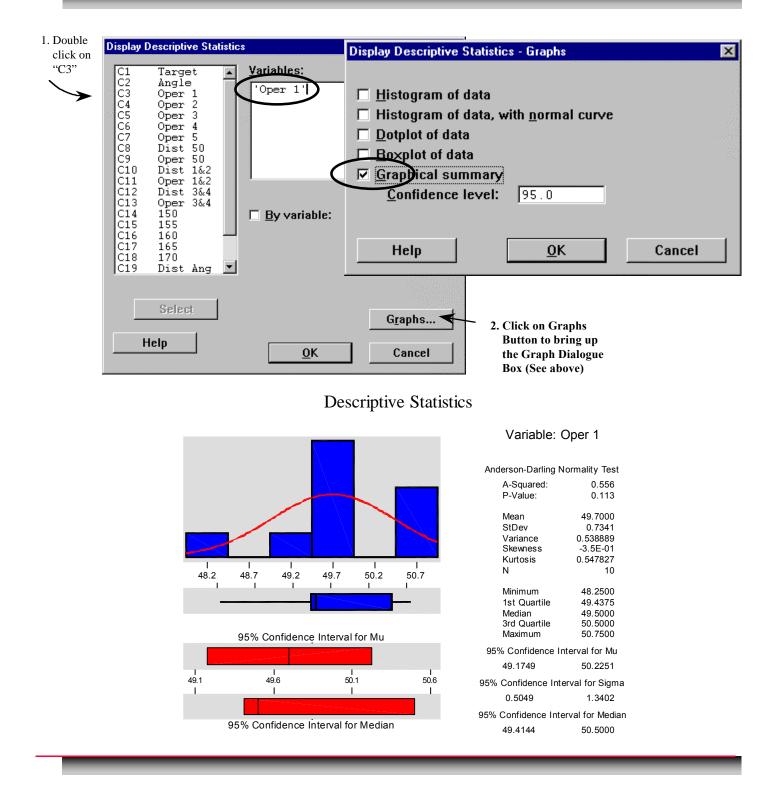
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ESession Descriptiv	e Statistic	s					
Variable Oper 1	N 10	Mean 49.700	Median 49.500	Tr Mean 49.750	StDev 0.734	SE Mean 0.232	
Variable Oper 1	Min 48.250	Max 50.750	Q1 49.438	Q3 50.500			
I							
-							

Establish Process Capability

Graphical Output of Basic Statistical Calculations

(H)

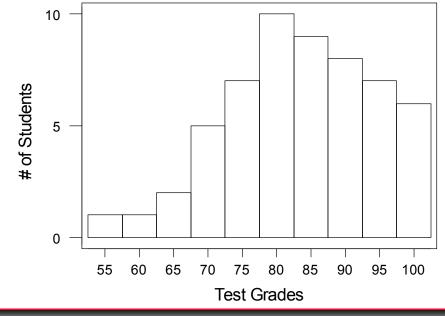




Histogram

- **Purpose**: To display variation in a process. Converts an unorganized set of data or group of measurements into a coherent picture.
- *When*: To determine if process is on target meeting customer requirements. To determine if variation in process is normal or if something has caused it to vary in an unusual way.
- How: Count the number of data points Determine the range (R) for entire set Divide range value into classes (K) Determine the class width (H) where H = R/K Determine the end points Construct a frequency table based on values computed in previous step

Construct a Histogram based on frequency table



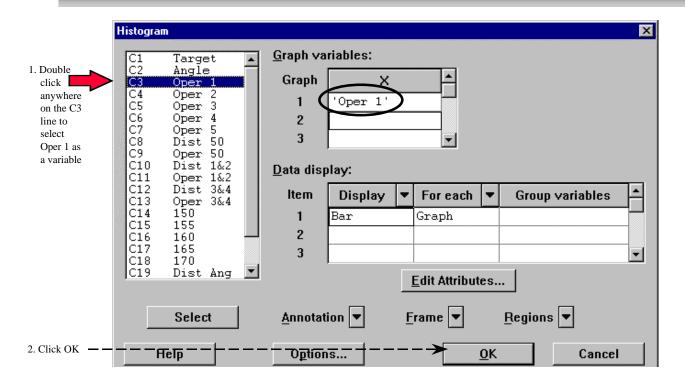
Histogram Example

MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw

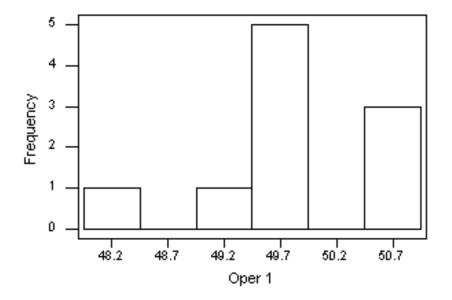
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E Session			<u>P</u> lot									_	
Oper 1			<u>T</u> ime S <u>C</u> hart		Plot	49.5	00	49.7	50	0.	734	C	1.2 🛋
Variable Oper 1	Variable Mini Oper 1 48.					49.4	Q1 37	50.5	Q3				
SUBC> Executi:	e 'C ce 9 file	<u>D</u> raftsr	man F	lot	49.437 SU.SUU								
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1	53.0	0	M <u>a</u> rgin				150	26.			1		\pm
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4	53.2		63.00		27.00		150	27,	oq I		1		العرا
	53.2		63.00		27.00		150	27.			1		

Histogram Output



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Enter your catapult data into columns C1 through C5. Label them "Oper 1" through "Oper 5."

(H)

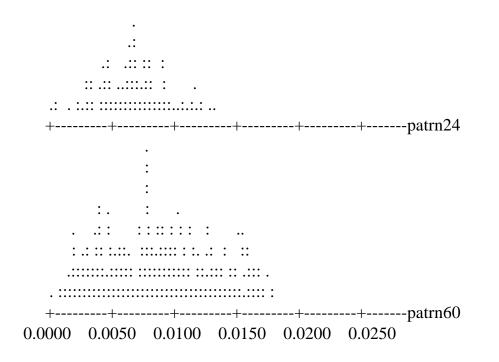
- 1. Make a histogram of Oper 1.
 - What are your observations?
- 2. Make a histogram of Oper 2.
 - Does it match the histogram for Oper 1?
 - The LSL is 46, the target is 50, and the USL is 54 inches.
 - Is the process on target?
 - Is the process within the specification limits?

Dot Plot

Purpose:	To display variation in a process.
-	Quick graphical comparison of two or
	more processes.

When: First stages of data analysis.

How: Create an X axis.Scale the axis per the range in the data.Place a dot for each value along the X axis.Stack repeat dots.



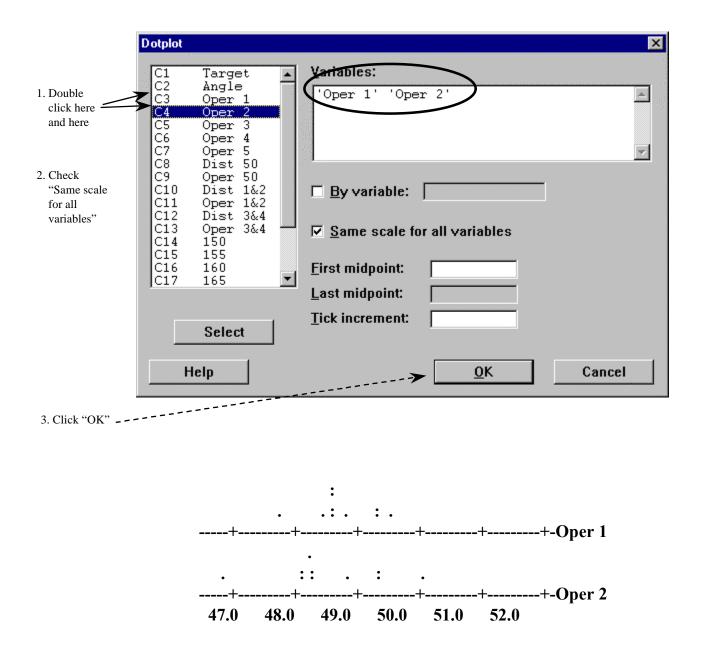
Dot Plot Example

MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw

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Dot Plot Output



(H)

Establish Process Capability



Using your catapult data, make a dot plot for each operator.

96)

What are your observations?



Depending on what you want Minitab to do, you may need to organize your data in different ways. To create a box plot (the next tool we will demonstrate) you need stacked data.

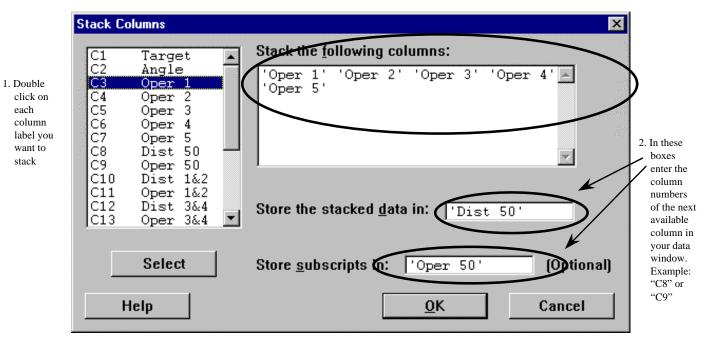
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To take your five catapult operator columns of data and stack them on top of each other, use the Stack command.

MINITAB FILE: Your file

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2	52.50	62.9	50	26.00	150	26.00	1				
3	53.00	62.0	00	26.75	150	26.75	1				
4	53.75	63.2	25	27.50	150	27.50	1				
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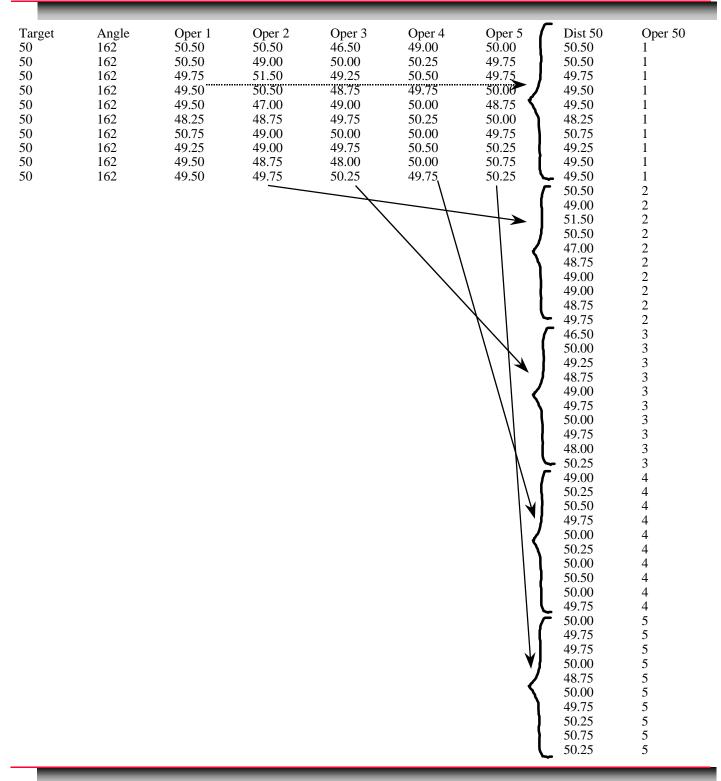
Stacking - Input



3. Click on "OK"

%

Stacking - Output





Purpose:

 To begin an understanding of the distribution of the data

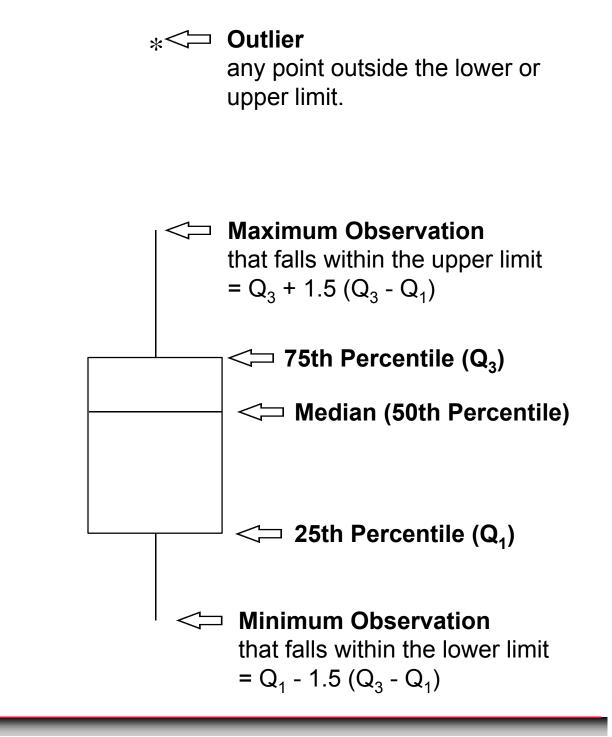
(H)

- To get a quick, graphical comparison of two or more processes
- When: First stages of data analysis.

How: Let Minitab do it.



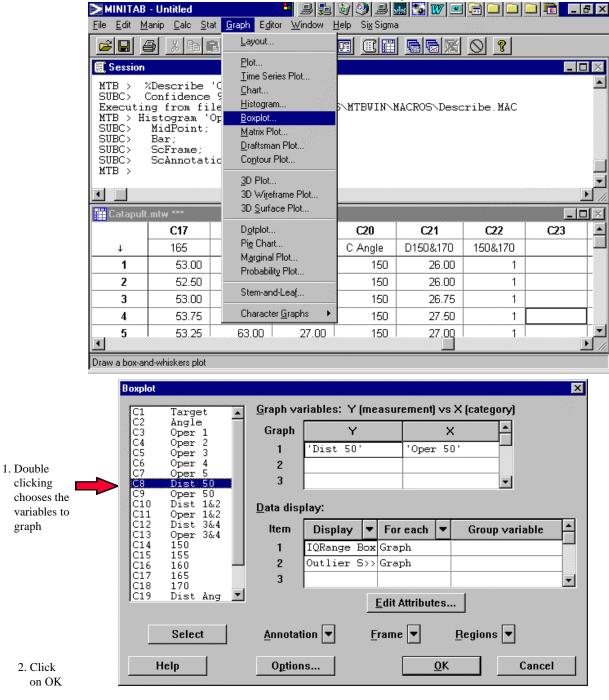
Box and Whisker Plot



Box and Whisker Plot Example

MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw

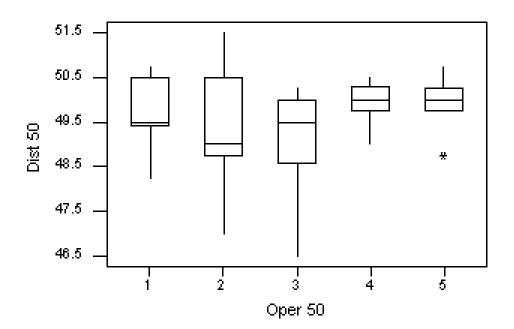
H)





Box and Whisker Plot Output

For your catapult data, make a Box and Whisker Plot by operator.



What are your observations?



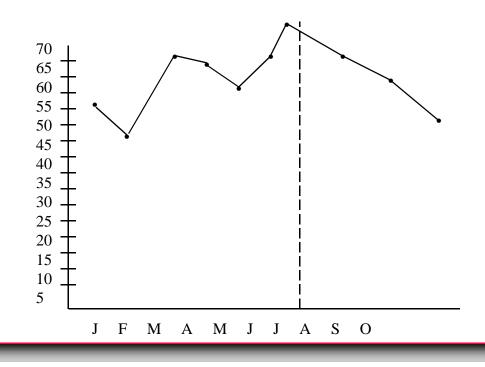


- **Purpose:** To track process over time in order to display trends and focus attention on changes in the process
- When: To establish a baseline of performance for improvement
 To uncover changes in your process
 To brainstorm possible causes for trends
 To compare the historical performance of a process with the improved process

Run Chart

How: Determine what you want to measure Determine period of time to measure and in what time increments Create a graph (vertical axis = occurrences, horizontal axis = time) Collect data and plot Connect data points with solid line Calculate average of measurements, draw solid horizontal line on run chart Analyze results Indicate with a dashed vertical line when a change was introduced to the process

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Run Chart Example

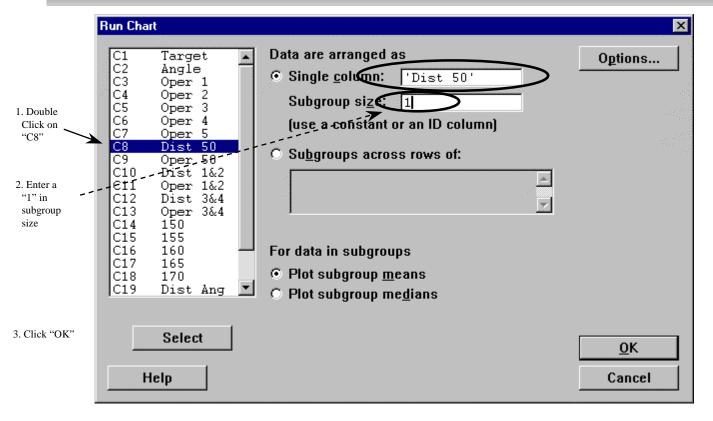
MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw

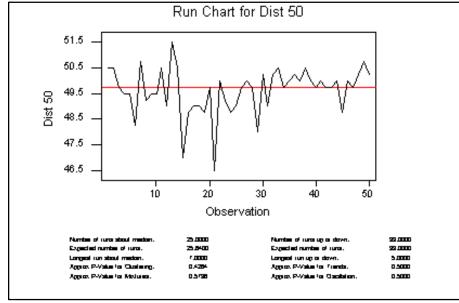
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	1		53.00	62.25	26.0					1		
	2		52.50	62.50	26.0	l				1		
	3		53.00	62.00	26.7					1		
	4		53.75	63.25	27.5					1		
5 53.25 63.00 27.0		<u>M</u> ul				1						
Draw a run chart with tests for randomness												



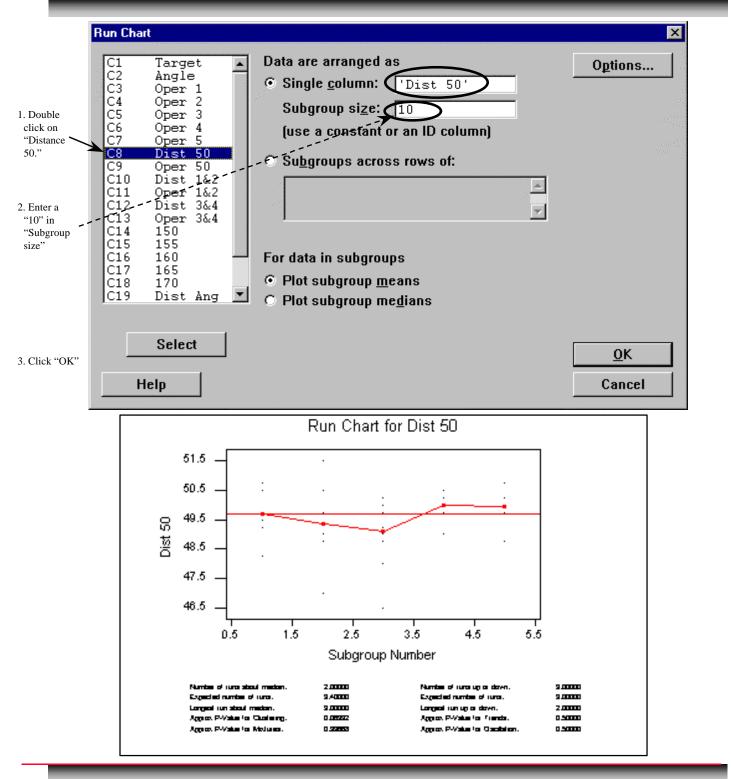
Run Chart Output - Subgroup Size 1







Run Chart Output - Subgroup Size 10





Run Chart Exercise

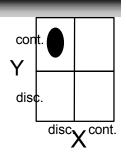
- Make a run chart of your team data. Use a subgroup size of 1 and 10.
- What are your observations?

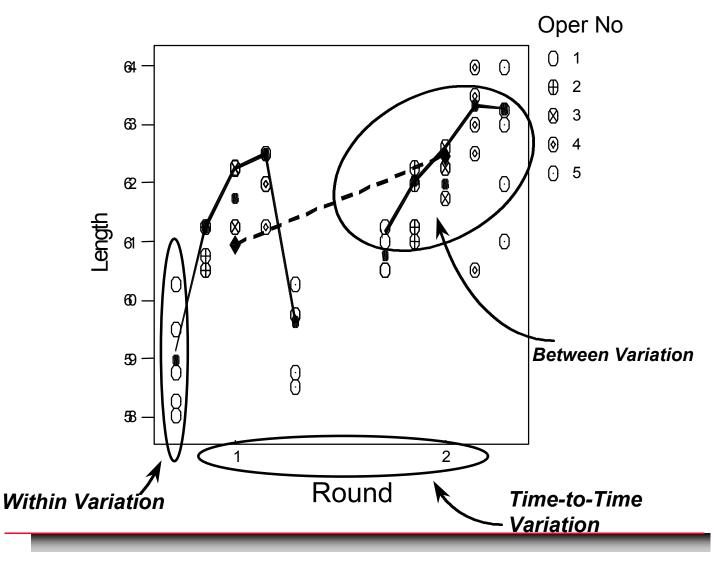


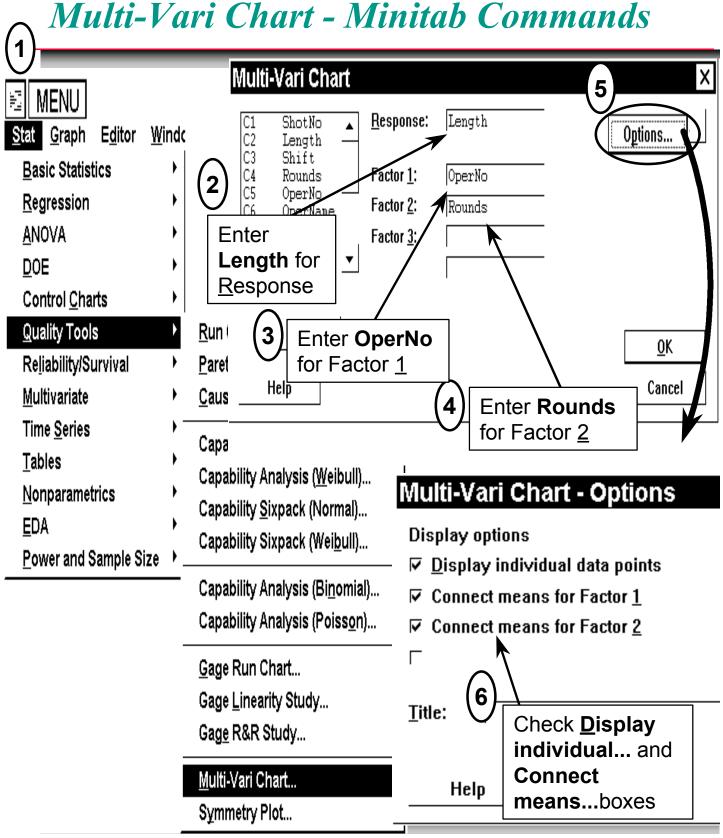
Purpose: To identify the most important types or families of variation To make an initial screen of process output for potential Xs

-

HE







96)

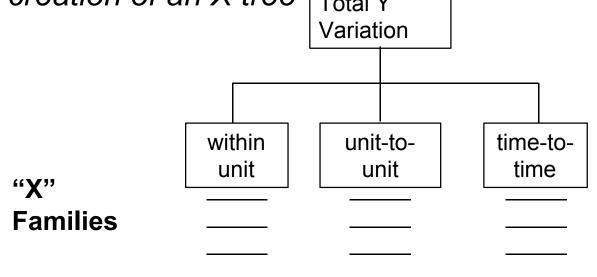
Establish Process Capability

Notes on the Multi-Vari Chart

Data must be in time order, preferably in the order of production (not necessarily in order of measurement)

(H)

- Data must be subgrouped or tagged by family of variation—the most common families of variation are: within unit, unitto-unit (between units), and time-to-time
- The tagging may be guided by the creation of an X tree Total Y



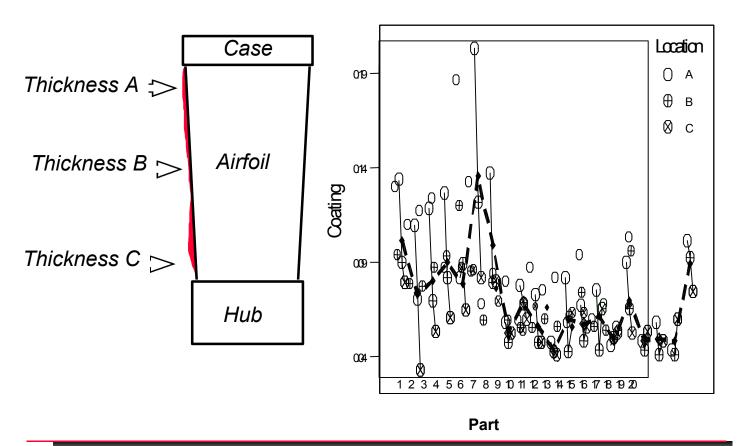
If a particular family of variation is unimportant, cross off that family—this narrows your search for the vital few Xs



Multi-Vari Chart Exercise

Coating thickness is a concern. The thickness of a coating applied to airfoils is being measured in three places: A, B, and C; as shown in the diagram below. Three parts produced each hour.

Which families of variation are dominant?



Multi-Vari Chart for Coating By Location - Part

Process Capability Catapult Example

96)

What is the capability of the Catapult Process?Target = 50" $\overline{x} = 50.5$ " (historic data)USL = 54"s = 1.1" (historic data)LSL = 46"

$$Z_{USL} = \frac{USL - \overline{x}}{s} = \frac{54 - 50.5}{1.1} = 3.18$$
$$Z_{LSL} = \overline{x} - LSL = \frac{50.5 - 46}{1.1} = 4.09$$



What's the probability of shooting the catapult too far? (Probability of a defect > USL) \triangle

%

 $Z_{USL} = 3.18$

 $P(defect_{USL}) = 0.000736$ (from Z table)

What's the probability of shooting the catapult too short? (Probability of a defect < LSL)

 $Z_{I,SI} = 4.09$

 $P(defect_{LSL}) = 0.0000216$ (from Z table)

What's the probability of shooting the catapult too far or too short? (Probability of a defect > USL + < LSL)

 $P(defect_{USL + LSL}) = 0.000736 + 0.0000216 = 0.0007576$

 $Z_{Bench} = 3.17$ (from Z table)

Establish Process Capability

Process Capability Catapult Exercise

96)

Using your data for one operator:

The LSL is 46, the target is 50, and the USL is 54 inches.

Is the process on target? What is the Process Capability?

$$\overline{x} = \underline{\qquad}$$

$$s = \underline{\qquad}$$

$$Z_{USL} = \underline{USL} - \overline{x} = \underline{\qquad}$$

$$P(defect_{USL}) = \underline{\qquad}$$

$$Z_{LSL} = \overline{x} - \underline{LSL} = \underline{\qquad}$$

$$P(defect_{LSL}) = \underline{\qquad}$$

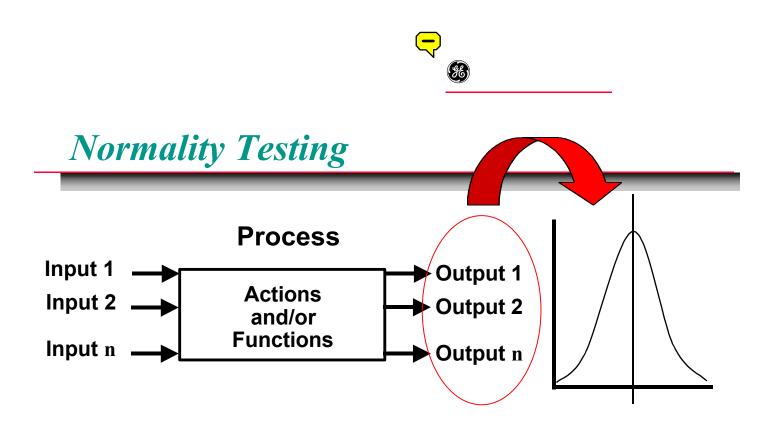
$$P(defect_{TOTAL}) = \underline{\qquad}$$

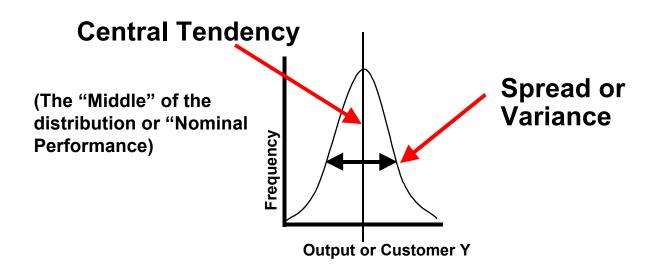
$$Z_{Bench} = \underline{\qquad}$$

$$P(from Z = \underline{\qquad}$$



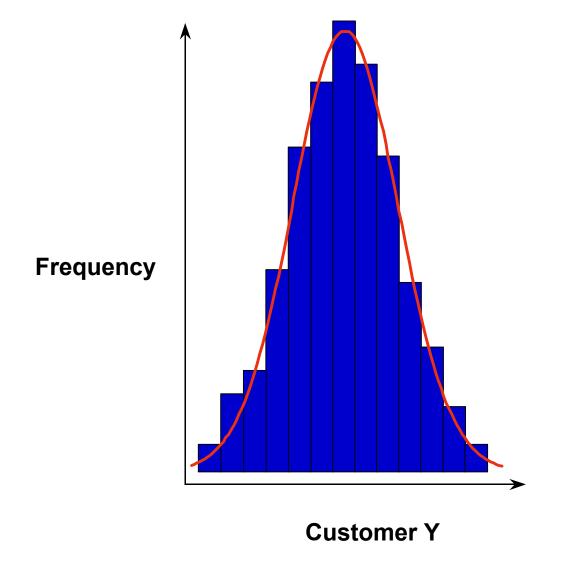
Normality Testing





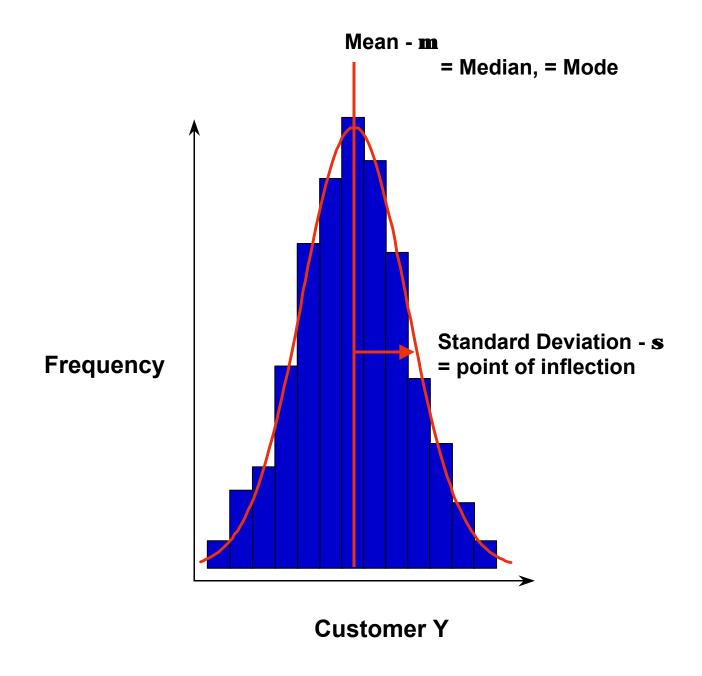








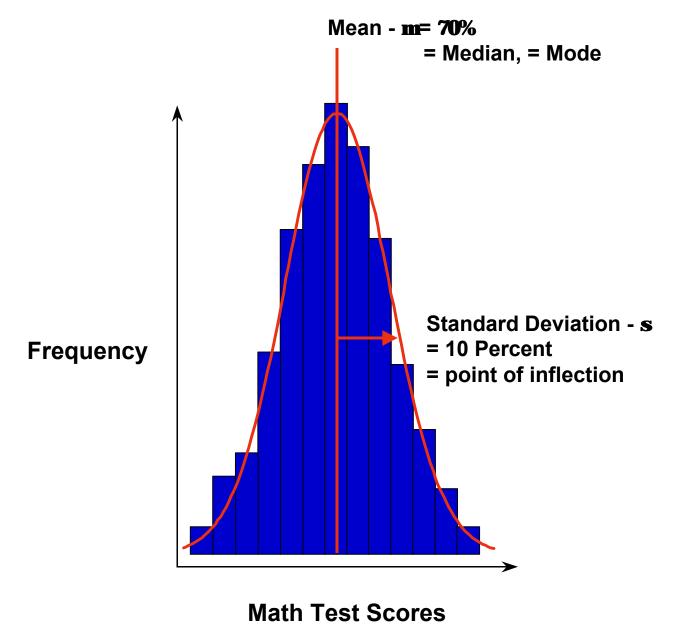
Normality Testing





Normality Testing

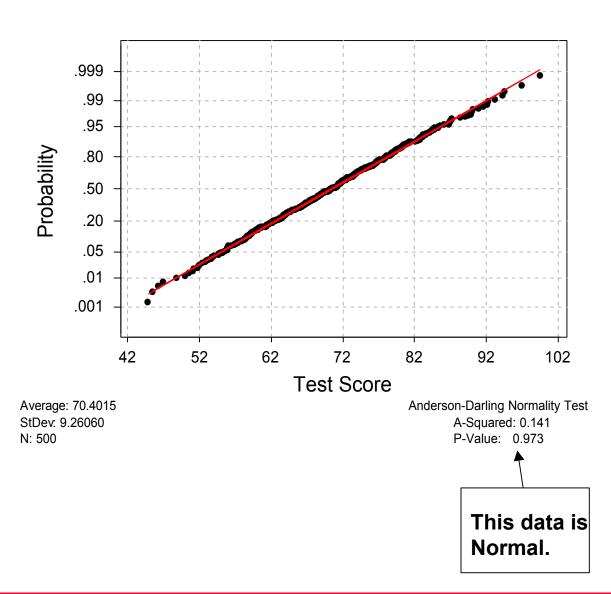
Add values on both axes, for reference?







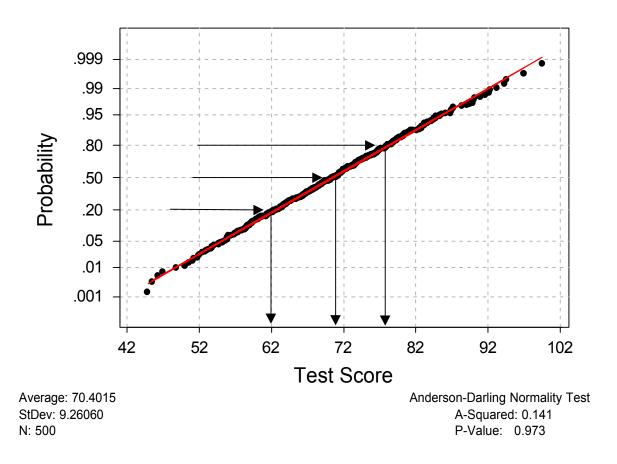
In Minitab, you can perform a Normality Test (Stat - Basic Statistics - Normality Test)



Normal Probability Plot



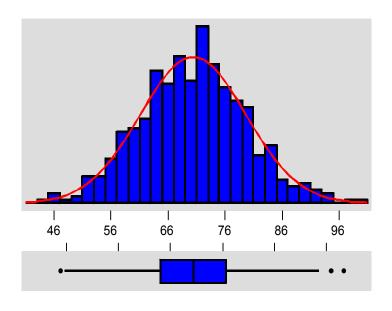
Normal Probability Plot

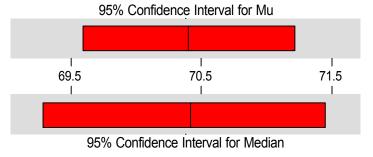


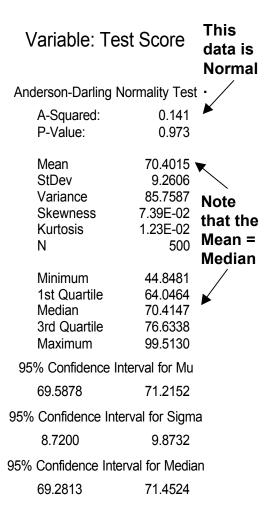




Descriptive Statistics









The output of many processes are normally distributed.

But not all data is normal. There are several reasons why the data might be non-normal (such as Failure data, etc) but we won't go into detail on that at this time.

%

In practice, we find that one of the most common reasons for non-normal data is that we are measuring the process at the "Whole Business" level (as opposed to a more narrowed down scope). We then often encounter non-normal data.

This could be because the particular process we are measuring simply does not produce an output which is normally distributed, or it could also be that we have more than one process aggregated into our data set.

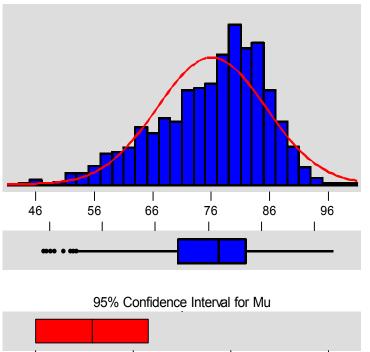
To illustrate this concept, let's take two different sets of test scores. Last year's scores had an average of 70 with a standard deviation of 10 points (as in the previous example) and, after making changes to the curriculum, this year's scores have an average of 82 and a standard deviation of 5. We have 500 test scores from each year, so the total data set has 1000 data points.

Let's see what the distribution and normality plot look like.





Descriptive Statistics



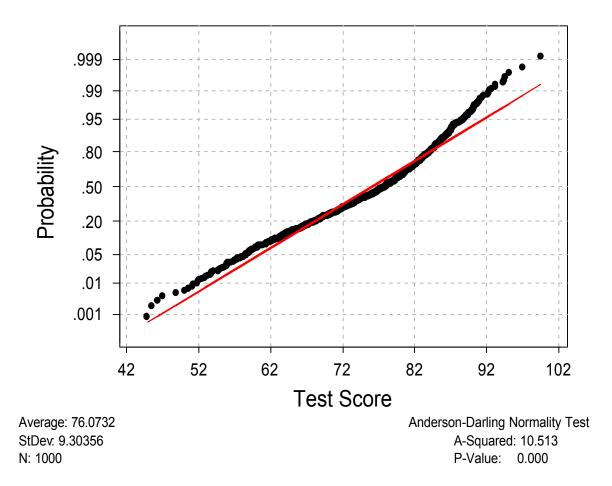
75.5	 76.5	 77.5	78.5	
95% Confidence Interval for Median				

Variable: Te	This st Score data is not Normality Test			
A-Squared: P-Value:	10.513 ► 0.000			
Mean StDev Variance Skewness Kurtosis N	76.0732 9.3036 86.5561 -6.4E-01 5.07E-03 1000			
Minimum 1st Quartile Median 3rd Quartile Maximum	44.8481 70.2410 77.9322 82.9794 99.5130			
95% Confidence Interval for Mu				
75.4959	76.6506			
95% Confidence Interval for Sigma				
8.9129	9.7303			
95% Confidence Interval for Median				
77.1074	78.4734			





Normal Probability Plot

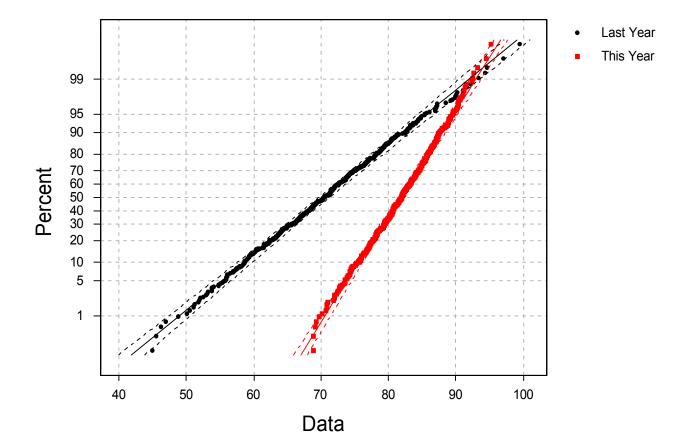






Minitab (Graph - Probability Plot) You may graph more than one column or choose

one column as the output separate it on a label in another column.



Normal Probability Plot for Last Year...This Year



The first step in dealing with non-normal data is to evaluate whether or not you have more than one process output aggregated into the output distribution.

¥6)

Sometimes this is very difficult to do. If your project data is non-normal, you should consult with your MBB for help in evaluating the data.

Sometimes, the output distribution is not an aggregate of multiple processes and still results in non-normal data. In that case, the mean and standard distribution can be misleading. Other statistical indicators of the central tendency and variance should be used.

Let's look at an example of an output distribution where the measurement is relative to a target. This example is Plastics' On time delivery data from 1999. The target date for delivery is established by the customer. We measure the number of days early or late based on the target. So, if the customer requested delivery on March 22 and it was delivered on March 26, the data point is 4 days late.....etc.



Let's Look At An Example

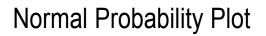
HE)

GE Plastics Lexan Q1 1999

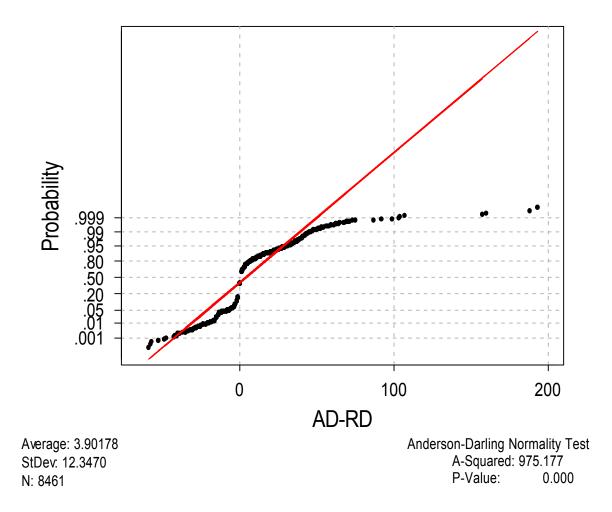
Customer Expectation:	Each Order will be delivered on the day requested
Unit:	An Order
Measure:	Days Early/Late to the Customer Request

8461 Deliveries in the 1st Quarter of 1999



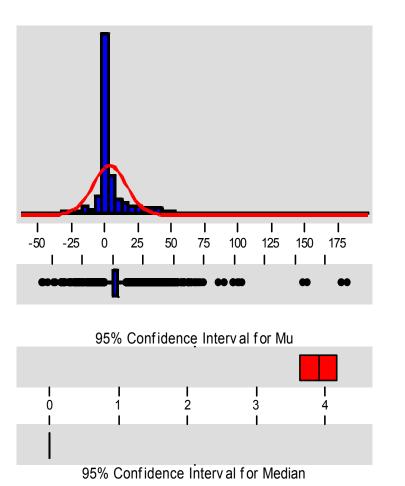


96)



The Data is not normal.





Descriptive Statistics

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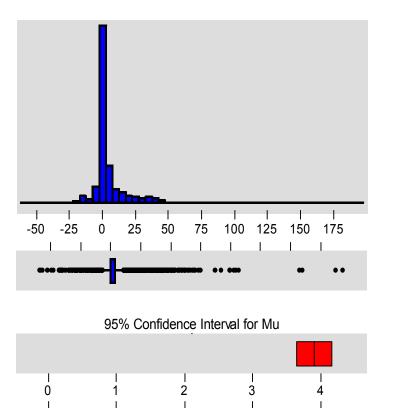
Variable: Early/Late

Anderson-Darling Normality Test

A-Squared: P-Value:	975.177 0.000			
Mean StDev	3.9018 12.3470			
Variance	152.448			
Skewness	2.92315			
Kurtosis	24.5556			
Ν	8461			
Minimum	-59.000			
1st Quartile	0.000			
Median	0.000			
3rd Quartile	4.000			
Maximum	193.000			
95% Confidence Interval for Mu				
3.639	4.165			
95% Confidence Interval for Sigma				
12.164	12.536			
95% Confidence Interval for Median				
0.000	0.000			

You can see that the normal curve Minitab draws does not represent the data.





95% Confidence Interval for Median

Descriptive Statistics

(H)

Variable: Early/Late

Anderson-Darling Normality Test

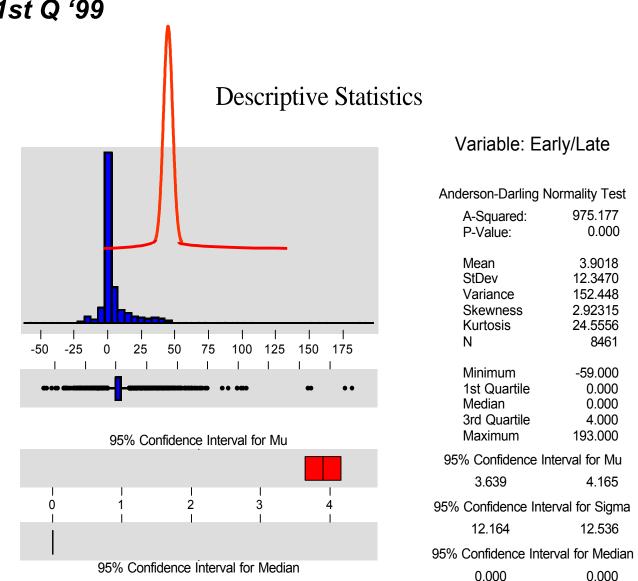
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A-Squared:	975.177			
P-Value:	0.000			
Mean StDev	3.9018 12.3470			
Variance	152.448			
Skewness	2.92315			
Kurtosis	24.5556			
Ν	8461			
Minimum	50.000			
1st Quartile	-59.000 0.000			
Median	0.000			
3rd Quartile	4.000			
Maximum	193.000			
95% Confidence Interval for Mu				
3.639	4.165			
95% Confidence Interval for Sigma				
12.164	12.536			
95% Confidence Interval for Median				
0.000	0.000			

Here is the Histogram without the attempt at fitting a normal curve.

Establish Process Capability





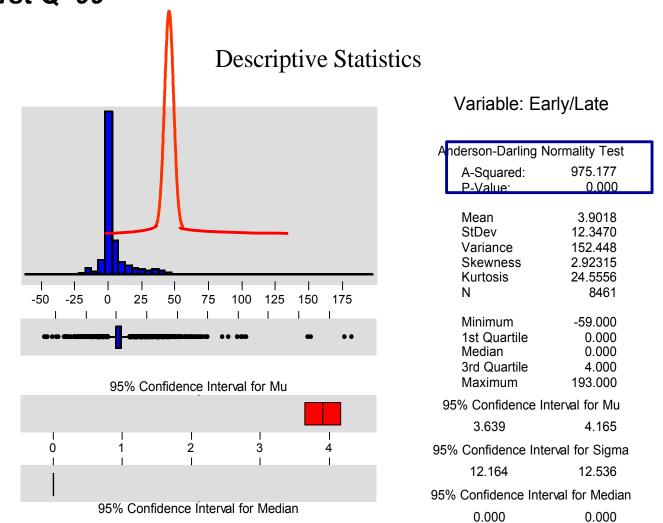
E)

Here is a better attempt to "fit" a curve to the data.

Establish Process Capability



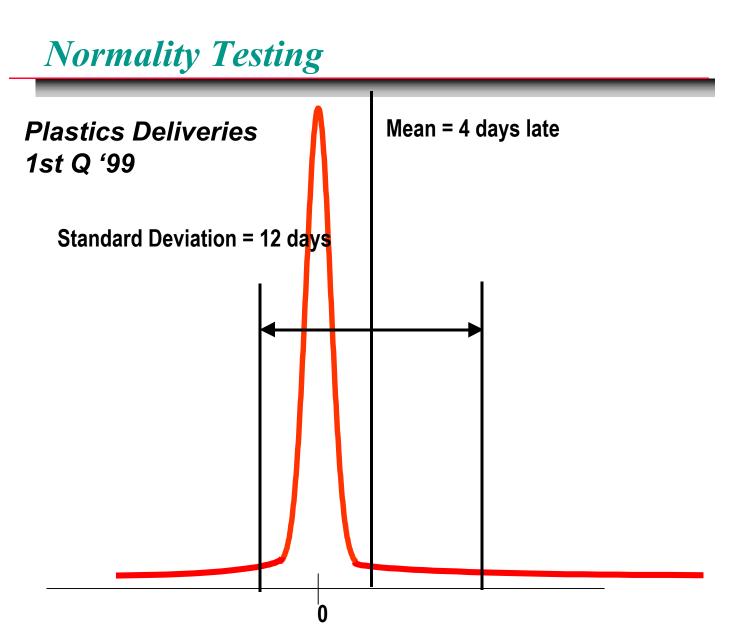
Plastics Deliveries 1st Q '99



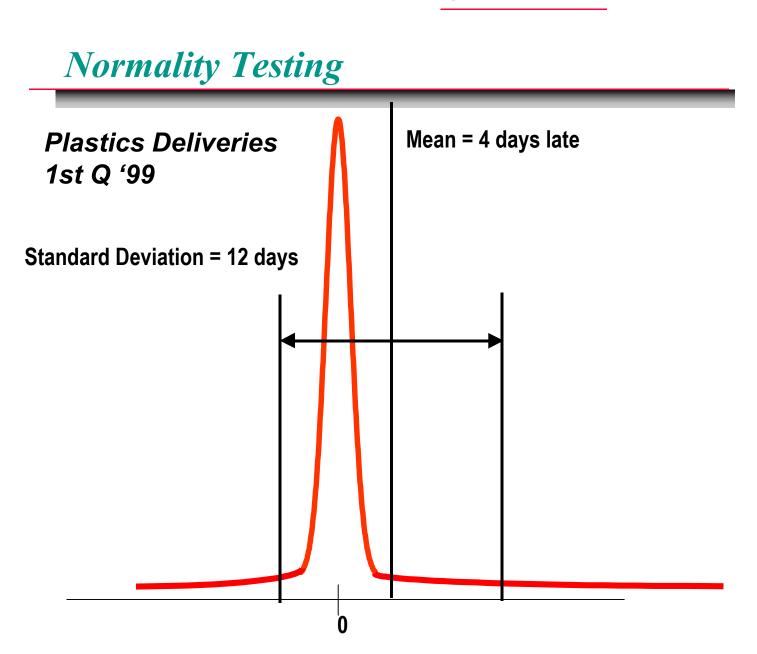
E)

Mean = 4 days late Std. Dev. = 12 days

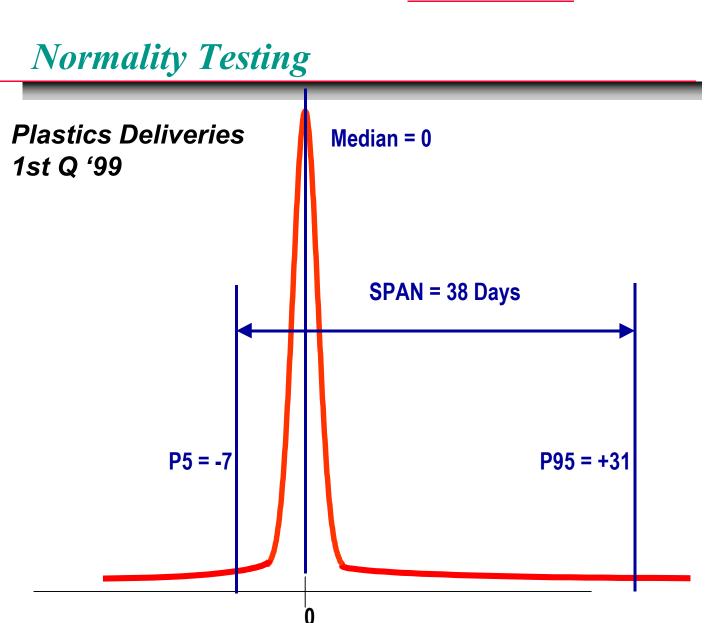
Let's see why the mean and standard deviation will not work in this case.



The red curve is the one that we "fit" to the data. The central tendency of the actual data is not well represented by the mean of 4 days late. 4 days late would indicate that we have a structural problem with our central tendency of delivering on time. This is not true if we use the median as the central tendency indicator.



Also, the standard deviation assumes an equal probability of variation on each side of the mean. This is not the case with this data. The variation on each side of the central tendency is quite different. There is a much longer "tail" on the late side than the early side. In other words, the business is late 50% of the time, but when it's late, it's very late.



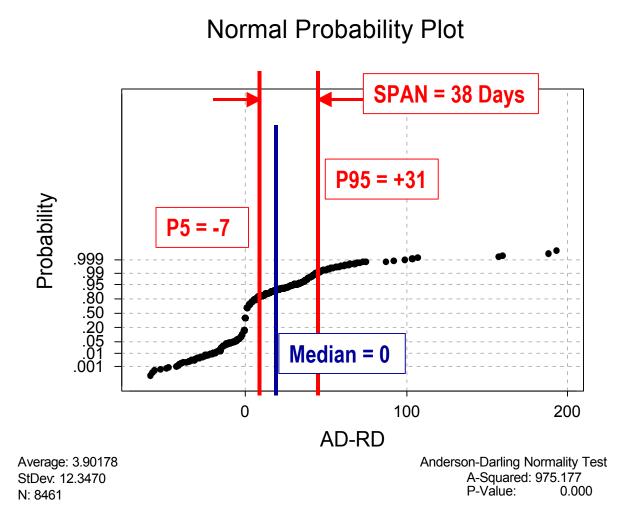
The median is a much better central tendency indicator in this case. The Span (distance from the 5% probability to the 95% probability) is a much better indicator of the variance in this case.

In this case, to use mean and standard deviation would be very deceiving. The median and span are much less sensitive to the long "tails" of the Distribution.

Establish Process Capability



Plastics Deliveries 1st Q '99



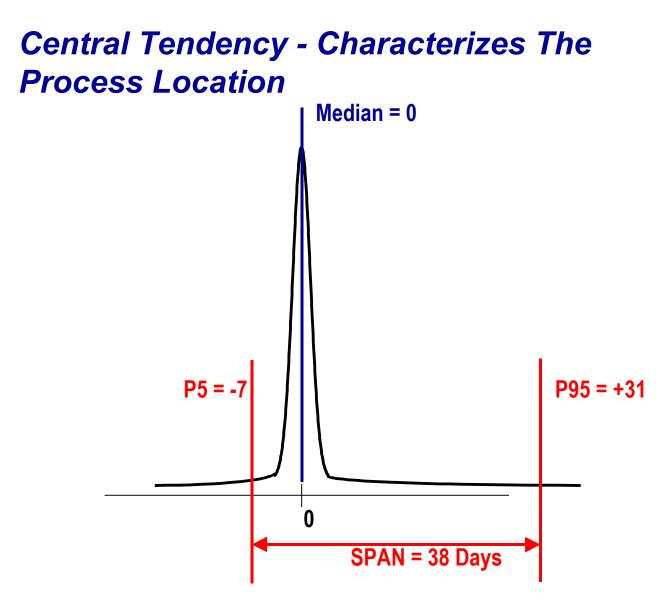
96)

Here are the Statistical Indicators superimposed on the Normality Plot

Establish Process Capability



Two Statistical Indicators:



96)

Variance - Characterizes the Consistency



Data Distribution Categories:

Although the distribution of non-normal data may take almost any shape, in practice, most of the distributions will fall into a small set of categories:

¥6)

- Normal
- Stable Operations (or Skewed Data)
- Targeted Data (as in the previous example)

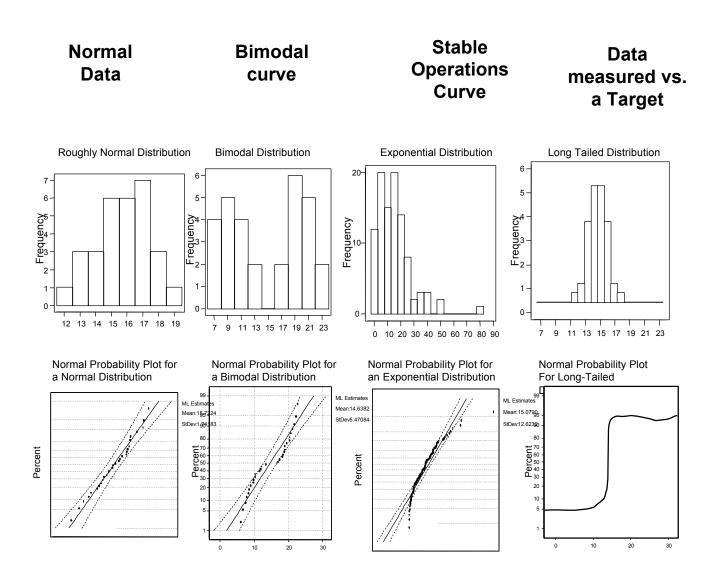
• Bi-Modal (usually when you have multiple processes in the data set)

So, what are the right statistical indicators to use for the central tendency and variance in each case?



Normality Testing

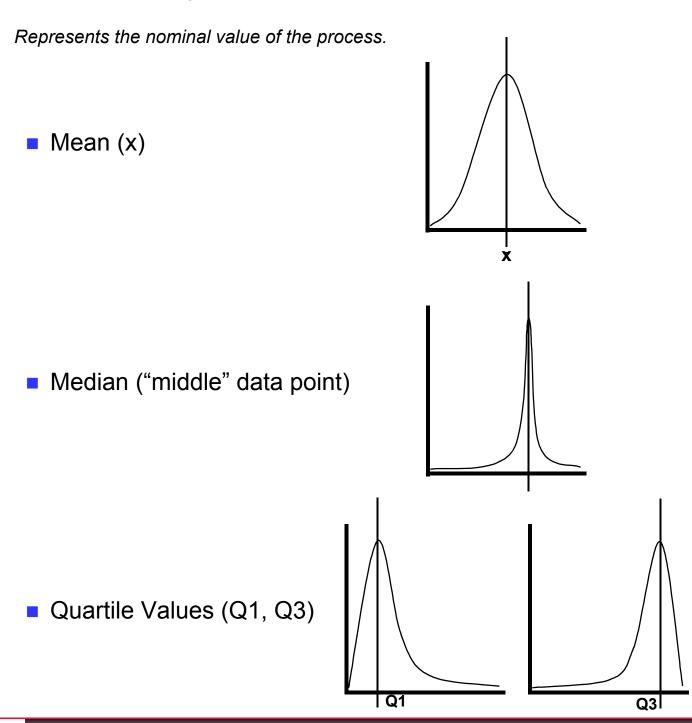
Most Common Data Distributions and their Normality Plots







Central Tendency - Statistical Indicators of the Distribution

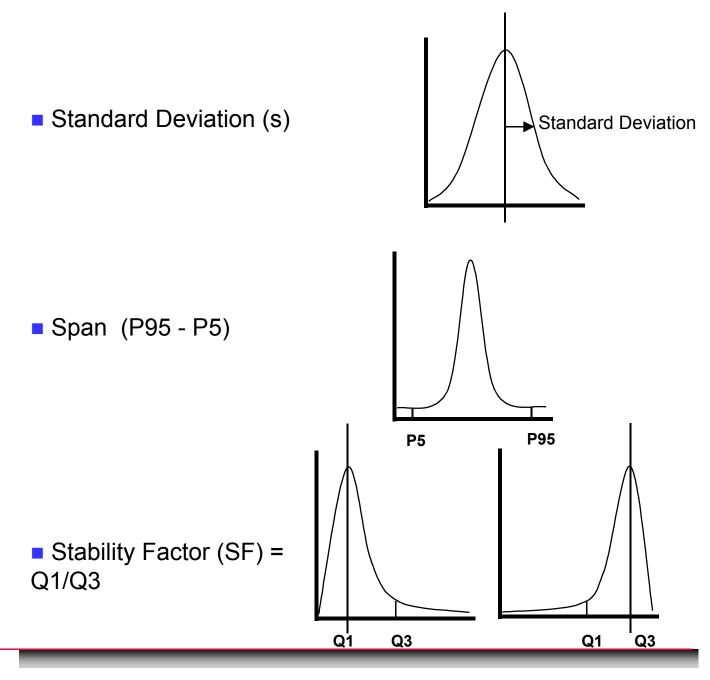






Variance - Statistical Indicators of the Distribution

Represents the variation in the process.





Statistical Indicators Summary

Shape	Normality Plot	Central Tendency	Variance
norma	Normal Probability Plot for a Normal Distribution ML Estimates Mead5.7224 SIDe/74183	mean (x)	standard deviation (S)
skewed	Normal Probability Plot for an Exponential Distribution ML Estimates Meants 0790 SIDe42 6232	Quartile Q1 or Q3	stability factor (SF)
long-tailed	Normal Probability Plot for a Long- Tailed Distribution	Mediañ (x)	span or range
bimodal	Normal Probability Plot for a Bimodal Distribution	be separa descriptiv	processes must ited before e statistics alculated

Normality Testing

Summary

- Data is often but not always normal
- Normality Testing helps you determine if it is normal and gives you insight into how your process is behaving
- When it's not normal, it may be because of more than one underlying process

 Caution is needed in proceeding if it's not - consult your MBB.

Notes:

Once you have baselined your output distribution, you <u>must</u> do a normality test to see if the data is normal. The results of a normality test are a key deliverable for your project. Also, learning to read normality plots can give you valuable insight into how your process behaves.

When you encounter non-normal data, you should involve your MBB in deciding how to proceed. The first consideration should be to try to evaluate if you have more than one process (central tendency) in the data set.

If you are sure you do not have more than one process in the data set, you <u>must</u> choose the appropriate set of statistical indicators based on the shape of your distribution. This set of statistical indicators must be used throughout your project. The goals you establish in Step 5 and the results you achieve and evaluate in Step 11 will be based on these statistical indicators.



Baseline Using Discrete Data



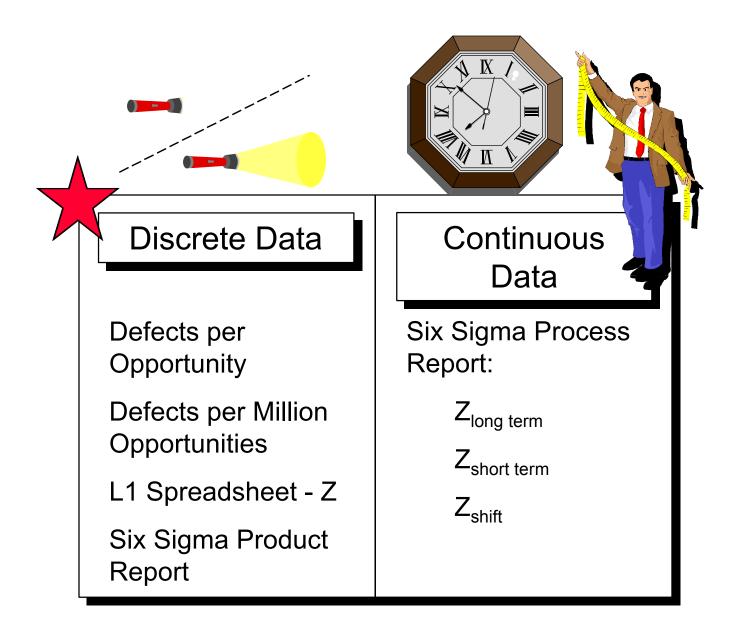
By the end of the training program, the participant will be able to:

Characterize their process using discrete data.

¥6)

- Calculate the distribution of defects for a given DPU.
- Determine how DPU controls Throughput Yield (Y_{TP}).
- Utilize Z tables to convert DPMO to "Z."
- Understand the differences between Classical Yield (Y_C), First Time Yield (Y_{FT}), Throughput Yield (Y_{TP}) and Rolled Yield (Y_{RT}).
- Calculate submitted, observed, and escaping defect levels.
- Understand how complexity impacts quality.

Data Analysis Roadmap



96)

Definitions

<u>Unit (U)</u>

The number of parts, sub-assemblies, assemblies, or systems **inspected or tested**. – Squares: 4 units

(H)

<u>Opportunity (OP)</u>

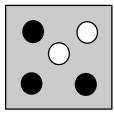
A characteristic you inspect or test.

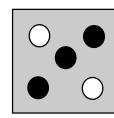
- Circles: 5 opportunities per unit

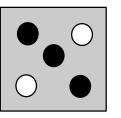
<u>Defect (D)</u>

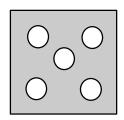
Anything that results in customer dissatisfaction. Anything that results in a nonconformance.

– Black circles: 9 defects







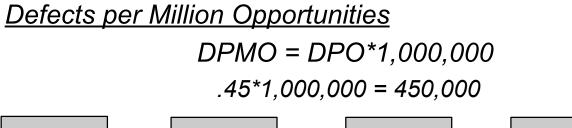


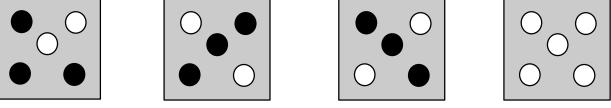


<u>Defects per Unit</u> DPU = D/U 9/4 = 2.25 **9**6)

<u>Total Opportunities</u> $TOP = U^*OP$ $4^*5 = 20$

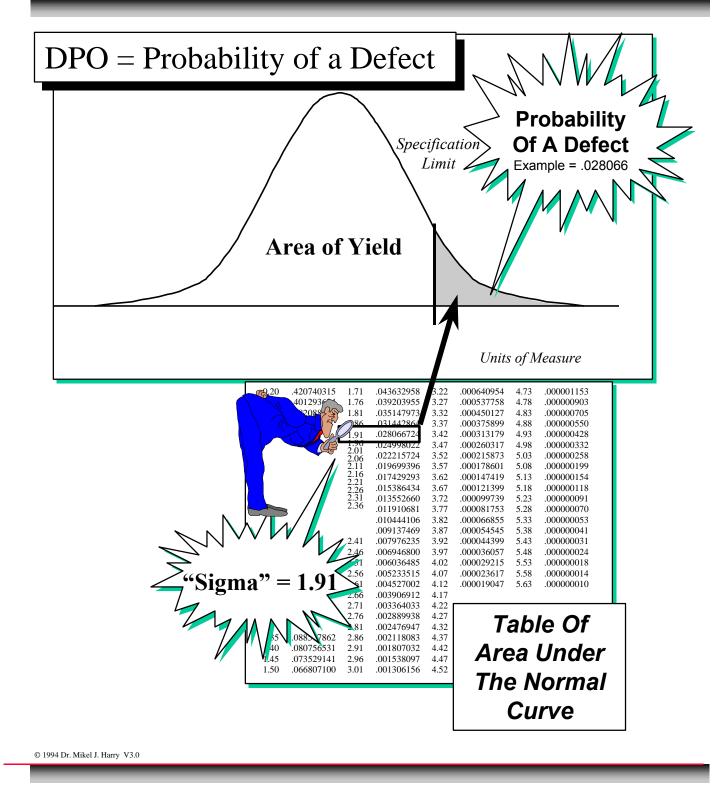
<u>Defects per Opportunity</u> (Probability of a Defect) DPO = D/TOP 9/20 = .45





Linking DPO to Probability of a Defect

%



Converting DPMO to Z

Sigma table

Æ

Long term		
	Actual	Reported
<u>DPMO</u>	Sigma (long term)	<u>Sigma (short term)</u>
500,000	0	1.5
460,172	0.1	1.6
420,740	0.2	1.7
382,089	0.3	1.8
344,578	0.4	1.9
308,538	0.5	2
274,253	0.6	2.1
241,964	0.7	2.2
211,855	0.8	2.3
184,060	0.9	2.4
158,655	1	2.5
135,666	1.1	2.6
115,070	1.2	2.7
96,801	1.3	2.8
80,757	1.4	2.9
66,807	1.5	3
54,799	1.6	3.1
44,565	1.7	3.2
35,930	1.8	3.3
28,716	1.0	3.4
22,750	2	3.5
17,864	2.1	3.6
13,903	2.2	3.7
10,724	2.3	3.8
8,198	2.4	3.9
6,210	2.5	4
4,661	2.6	4.1
3,467	2.0	4.1
2,555	2.8	4.3
1,866	2.0	4.4
1,350	3	4.5
968	3.1	4.5
687	3.2	4.7
483		4.8
337	3.4	4.9
233	3.5	5
159	3.6	5.1
108	3.7	5.2
72	3.8	5.3
48	3.9	5.4
32	4	5.5
21	4.1	5.6
13	4.2	5.7
9	4.3	5.8
5	4.4	5.9
3.4	4.5	6

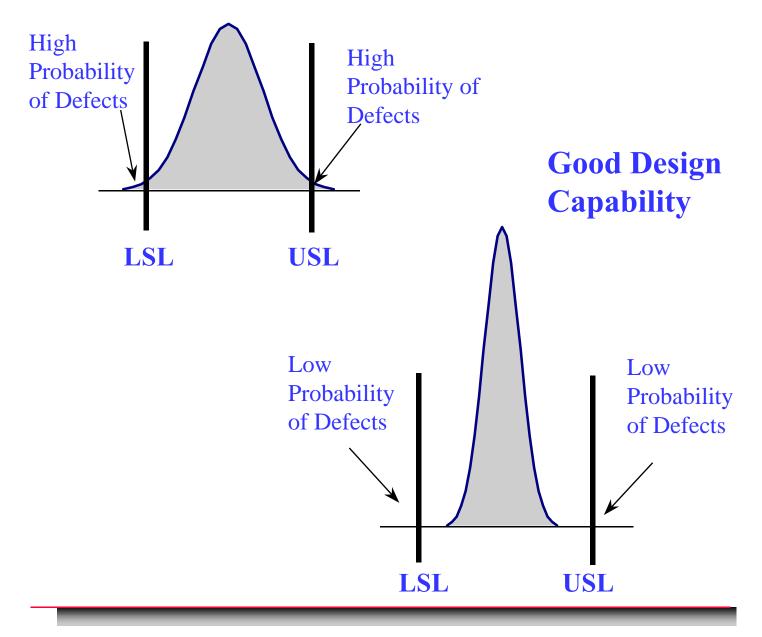
Z = Sigma Capability

Z	_ DPMO
2	308,537
3	66,807
4	6,210
5	233
6	3.4

The Normal Curve and Capability

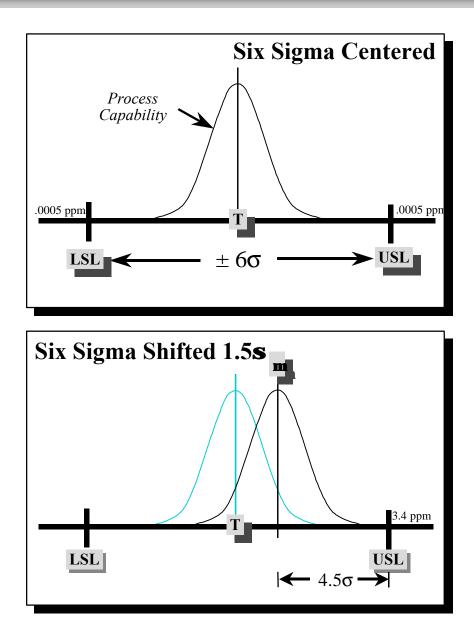
æ)

Poor Design Capability





Generalizing the Correction



The 1.5s shift is used as a compensatory off-set in the mean to generally account for dynamic nonrandom variations in process centering. It represents the average amount of change in a typical process over many cycles of that process.

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Establish Process Capability

Product/CEO/ Process	Defects	Unit	Opt	Total Opt	DPU	DPO	DPMO	Shift	Long Term Capability	Sigma
	<u>D</u>	<u>U</u>	OP	TOP	<u>DPU</u>	<u>DPO</u>	<u>DPMO</u>	<u>Shift</u>	<u>Sigma-L</u>	<u>ZB</u>
Product A	2	1	659	659	2.0000	0.003035	3035	1.5	2.74	4.24
Product B	24	340	48	16320	0.0706	0.001471	1471	1.5	2.97	4.47
Product C										
Product D										
Product E										
Product F										
Product G										
Product H										
Product I										
Product J										
Product K										
Product L										
Grand Total	26			16979		0.001531	1531	1.5	2.96	4.46

Form - L1: Input

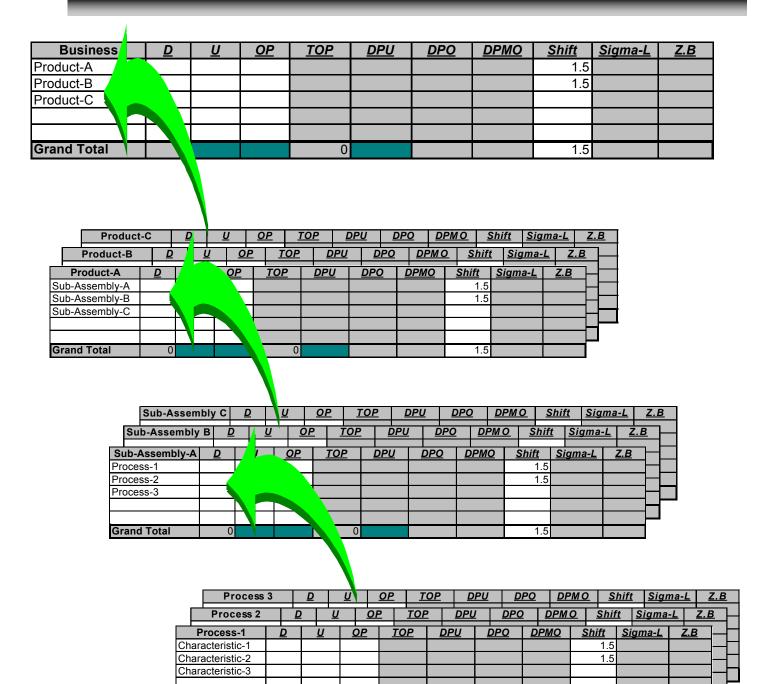
Opportunity - Anything you measure or test
 Defect - Any non-conformity in a product
 Units - The number of units (parts, subassemblies, assemblies, or systems) inspected or tested

Define Opportunities

Accumulate Defects for All Defined Opportunities



L1 Form Roll-Up



Grand Total

0

1.5



Six Sigma Product Report

In Minitab, create the following table:

Worksheet 1 ***								
	C1	C2	C3	C4				
Ļ	Defects	Units	Opps					
1	2	1	659					
2	24	340	48					
3								
4								

Run the Six Sigma Product Report:

MINITAB ·	- Untitled						_ 8 ×		
<u>File E</u> dit <u>M</u> a	anip <u>C</u> alc	<u>Stat</u> <u>G</u> raph E <u>c</u>	ļitor <u>W</u> indow	<u>H</u> elp Si <u>x</u> Sigma					
	3 X E	<u>B</u> asic Statistic	s 🕨	/ / / E E E G G S					
E Session		<u>R</u> egression ANOVA							
<u>a</u> ,		DOE							
Dollup S	tatiatia	Control Charte							
Rollup S	ausuce	Uuality Loois		<u>R</u> un Chart					
		Reliability/Survival 🔹 🕨		Pareto Chart					
Charact	Defs	<u>M</u> ultivariate Time Serier	•	Cause-and-Effect ZShif					
1	2	Time <u>S</u> eries <u>T</u> ables		Capability Analysis (Normal)	1.500 4.244				
Z Total	24	<u>N</u> onparametri	os 🕨	Capability Analysis (Weibuli)	1.500 4.474 1.500 4.461				
		<u>E</u> DA	•	Capability Sixpack (Normal)					
		Power and Sa	ample Size 🔸 _						
				Capability Analysis (Bi <u>n</u> omial) Capability Analysis (Poisson)			-		
							▶ //i		
Workshe	et 1 ***			Six Sigma Process Report			_ 🗆 🗙		
	C1	C2	C3	Six Sigma Product Report C6	C7	C8	C9 🔺		
Ļ	Defects	Units	Opps	<u>G</u> age Run Chart					
1	2	2 1	65	Gage Linearity Study Gage R&R Study					
2	24	4 340	41-						
3				Multi-Vari Chart Symmetry Plot					
4				Synnody Floc.					
5									
6									
7									
8									
Generate vario									

Discrete Data Examples

1. Select Defects, Units, & Opportunities

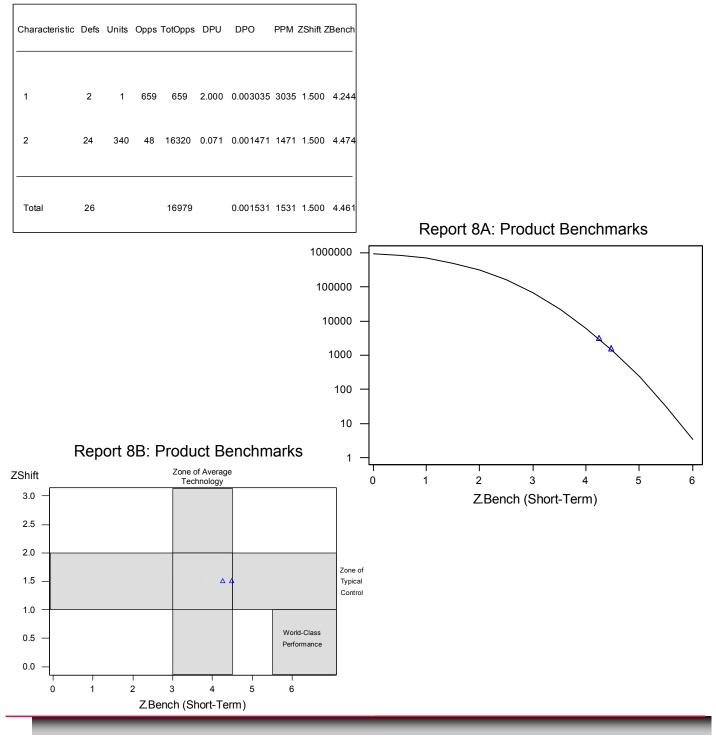
Six Sigma Product Report			X
C1 Defects C2 Units C3 Opps	Defects: Units: Opportunities:	Defects Units Opps	
	<u>C</u> haracteristics: <u>S</u> hift factors:		(optional) (optional)
Select Help			<u>O</u> K Cancel
	2	. Select OK.	

86)



Six Sigma Product Report Output

Report 7: Product Performance





Yield





1. After first inspection: 1 passed, 3 failed Rework 3 parts



2. After second inspection: 1 passed, 2 failed Rework 2 parts



3. After third inspection: 1 passed, 1 scrapped

What is the yield of this process?

Types of Yield

Classical Yield = $Y_c = 3/4 = 75\%$?

Classical yield is the number of defect-free parts for the <u>whole</u> process divided by the total number of parts inspected. If we say the yield is 3/4 or 75%, we lose valuable data on the true performance of the process. This loss of insight becomes a barrier to process improvement.

First Time Yield = Y_{*FT*} = 1/4 = 25%?

First time yield is the number of defect-free parts divided by the total number of parts inspected for the first time. If we say the yield is 1/4 or 25%, we are really talking about the First Time Yield (FTY). This is a better yield estimate to drive improvement.

Throughput Yield =

 $Y_{TP} = P(0) = e^{-DPU} = e^{-2.25} = .1054 = 10.54\%$

 Y_{TP} is the percentage of units that pass through an operation <u>without any defects</u>. This is the best yield estimate to drive improvement.

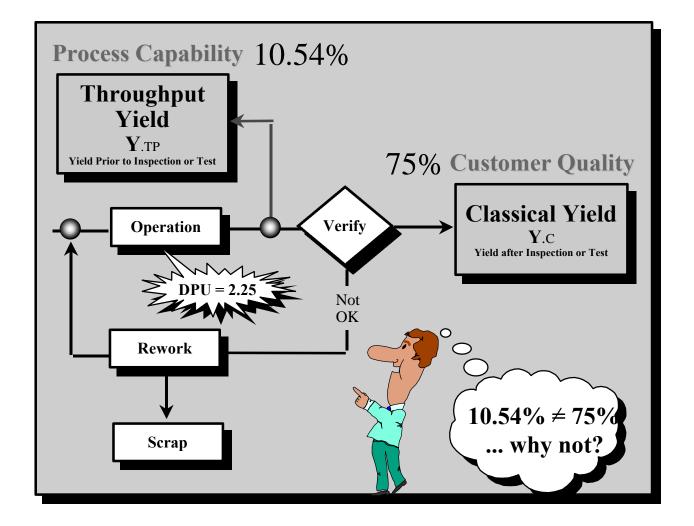


Comparison of the Yield Models

For Example:

$$Y_{C} = \frac{3}{4} = .75, \text{ or } 75\%$$

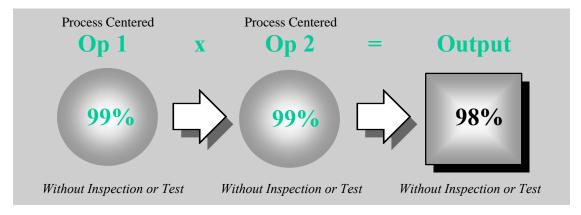
 $Y_{TP} = e^{-DPU} = e^{-2.25} = .1054, \text{ or } 10.54\%$





A given process has two operations. Each operation has a throughput yield of 99 %. The rolled yield equals:

¥6)

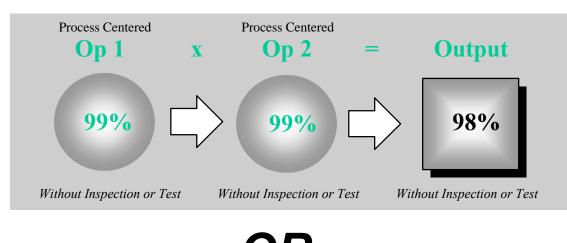


. . . There is an 98% probability that any given unit of product could pass through both operations defect free.

If $Y_{TP} = e^{-DPU} = Throughput$ Yield, Does $Y_{RT} = e^{-TDPU} = Rolled$ Yield?

Establish Process Capability

Let's try it on our earlier example:



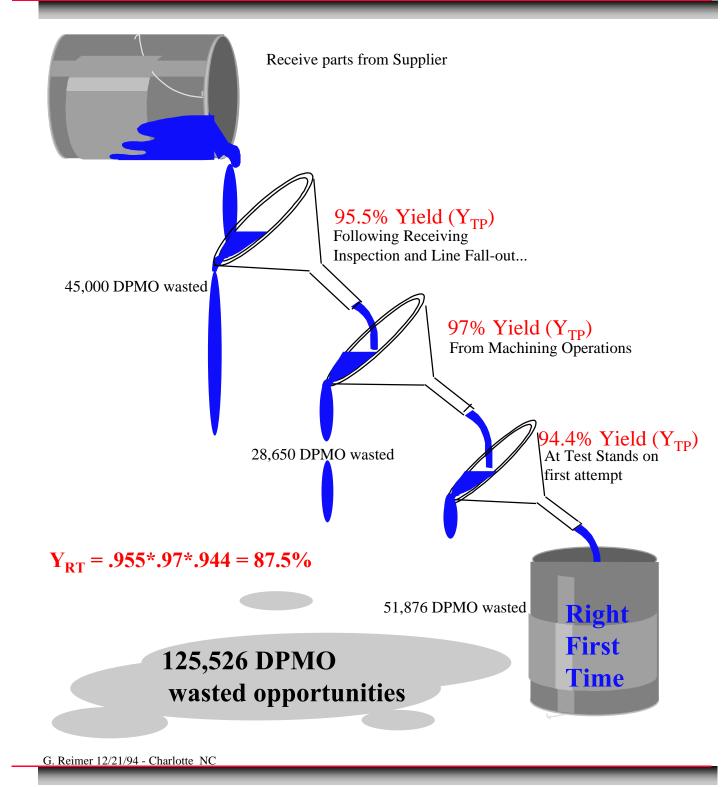
$$\mathbf{OR}$$
$$Y_{RT} = \mathbf{e}^{-TDPU}$$

Each Operation has a 0.01 probability of a defect. Therefore:

TDPU = .01 + .01 defect per unit = .02 defects per unit $Y_{RT} = e^{-.02} = .98019$ or 98%



Rolled Throughput Yield (Y_{RT})



Establish Process Capability

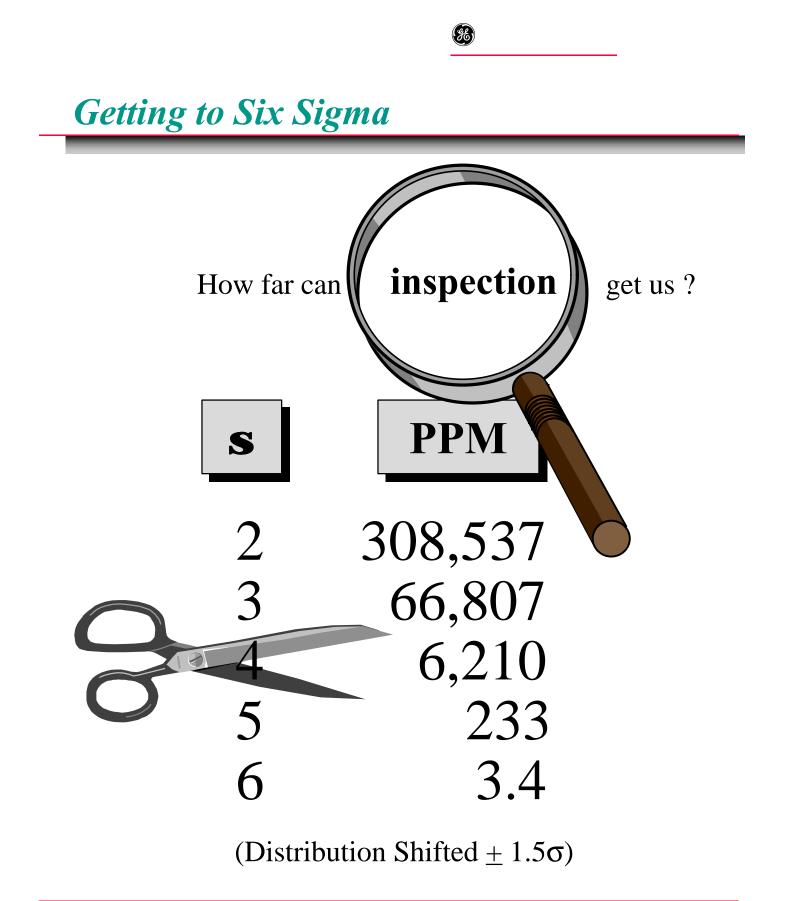


Rolled Yield (%) Vs Z (distribution centered)

-

98)

ity	Capability								
Complexity	Number of characteristics	Z = 3.0	Z = 4.5	Z = 5.5	Z = 6.0				
C_0	1	93.32	99.865	99.997	99.99966				
	20	25.09	97.334	99.941	99.9932				
I	60	1.58	92.214	99.820	99.9796				
	100		87.363	99.700	99.9660				
	200		76.324	99.402	99.9320				
	500		50.892	98.511	99.8301				
↓	1000		6.696	93.857	99.3223				



The Inspection Exercise

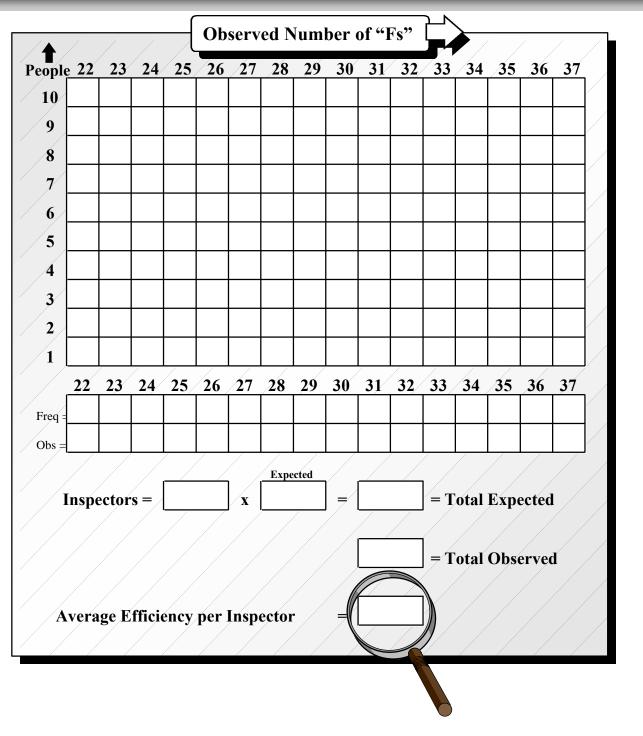
Task: Count the number of times the 6th letter of the alphabet appears in the following text. The Necessity of Training Farm Hands for First Class Farms in the Fatherly Handling of Farm Live Stock is Foremost in the Eyes of Farm Owners. Since the Forefathers of the Farm Owners Trained the Farm Hands for First Class Farms in the Fatherly Handling of Farm Live Stock, the Farm Owners Feel they should carry on with the Family **Tradition of Training Farm Hands of First Class** Farmers in the Fatherly Handling of Farm Live Stock Because they Believe it is the Basis of Good Fundamental Farm Management.

¥6)

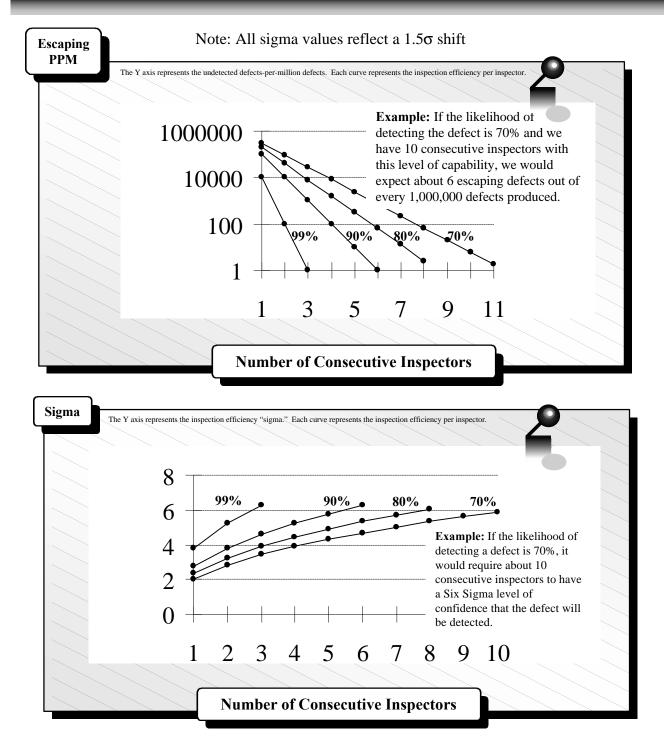
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Results of the Exercise



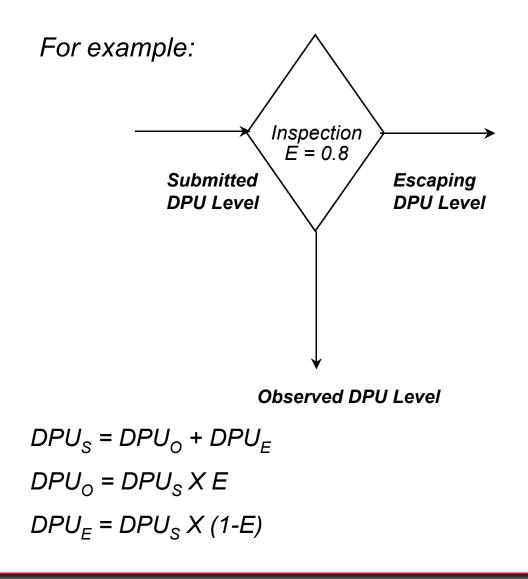
The Impact of Added Inspection





Quantification of Defects

Knowing the observed defect level and the test effectiveness, we can estimate submitted defects and escaping defects.





Quantification of Defects

Given: Observed Defects = DPU of 0.25 and E = .8Then: $= DPU_{o}/E = (0.25/0.8)$ Submitted Defects = DPU of 0.31 Escaping Defects = $DPU_s - DPU_o = (0.31 - 0.25)$ = DPU of 0.06Inspection E = 0.8Escaping Submitted **DPU** Level **DPU** Level = 0.31 (calc) = 0.06 (calc)

Observed DPU Level = 0.25 (given)



Calculating Submitted, Observed and Escaping Defect Levels

Given:

— The requirement is to ship the product with no more than one defect in 500 units shipped.

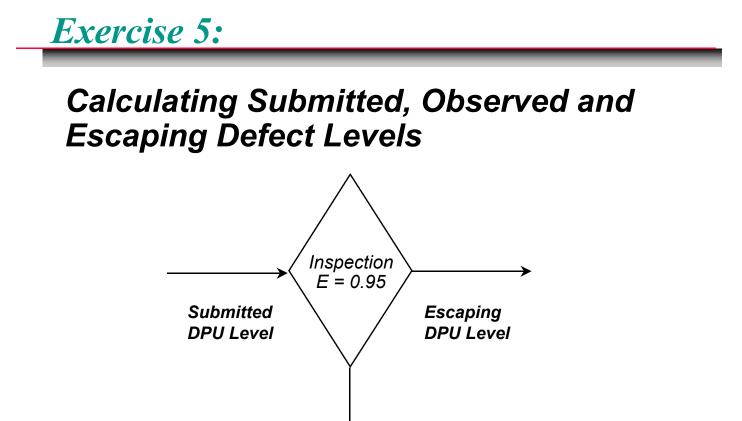
Æ

— The final test is to be performed using automatic test equipment having an effectiveness of 0.95.

Knowing the maximum level of escaping defects, we can estimate the maximum defect/unit level:

—Observed in the final test. (This sets a minimum throughput yield limit.)

— Submitted to the final test. (This sets a minimum on the combination of defects created in model assembly and from the escaping defect levels from prior tests.)



Æ

Observed DPU Level

- 1. Expressed as a decimal, what is the given acceptable maximum escaping defect level?
- 2. What then is the acceptable maximum defect level for:
 - a. Units submitted to final test?
 - b. Defects observed at final test?
- 3. What is the observed throughput yield figure?



Calculating Submitted, Observed, and Escaping Defect Levels

(H)

1.
$$DPU_E = \frac{1}{500} = 0.002$$

2. Maximum acceptable submitted defects =

 $DPU_{S} = \frac{defects \ escaping}{1 - effectiveness} = \frac{DPU_{E}}{1 - E} = \frac{0.002}{0.05} = 0.040 \ DPU$

2b. Maximum acceptable observed defects = $DPU_0 = DPU_s - DPU_E = 0.040 - 0.002 = 0.038 DPU$

3.
$$F_{TP}$$
 minimum = $e^{-DPU} = e^{-0.038}$
 $\frac{1}{e^{0.038}} = \frac{1}{1.0387} = 0.9627$ or 96.3%

Establish Process Capability



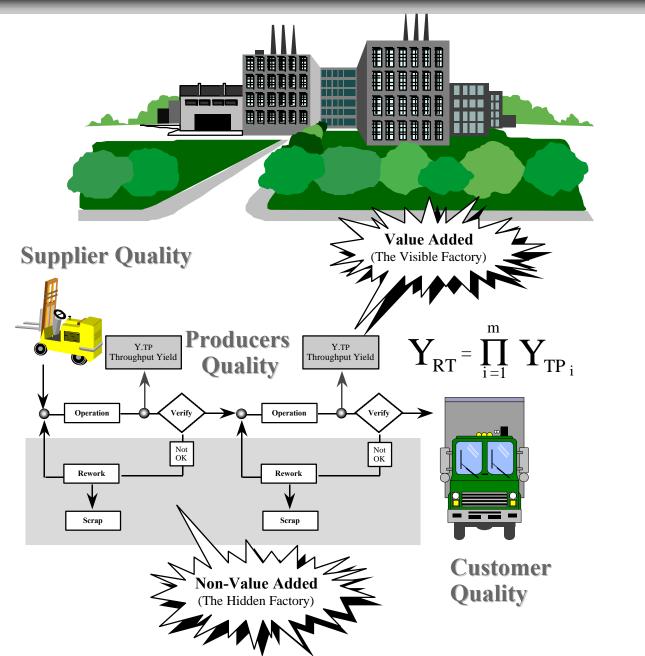
1. Track defects over all products and operations over time.

%

- 2. There is no such thing as an initial good or bad DPU.
- 3. Set aggressive defect reduction goals.
- 4. Do not use defects for judging operator performance.
- 5. Focus on those defects flowing to the customer.

A New Perspective of the Factory

96)



To decrease defects-per-opportunity means to increase rolled through-put yield which, in turn, improves product reliability and customer satisfaction.

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Establish Process Capability

Process Capability Objectives

By the end of this section the participant will be able to:

(H)

- choose rational subgroups for proper sampling and analysis
- calculate the within, between and total sum of squares in order to analyze and characterize the components of variation
- calculate the long and short term standard deviation and Z-values
- differentiate between short term process capability and long term process capability
- explain the general long term 1.5s shift
- use Minitab Six Sigma Process Report to obtain short term and long term process capability measures³/₄ s_{sT} , s_{LT} , $Z_{benchST}$, $Z_{benchLT}$, Z_{shift} , DPMO_{ST}, DPMO_{LT}
- determine if there is a control problem or a technology problem¾using the capability measures from above and a 2x2 matrix

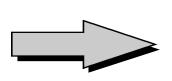


Process Capability Goals

Goals

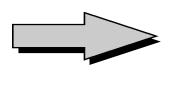
- Familiarize participants with the key Six Sigma concepts of Control, and Technology and how they guide process improvement efforts.
- Enable participants to use Minitab tools to determine both long term and short term process capability measures³/₄ including how to graphically display (via Histograms, Box Plots, Run Charts, and ANOVA results) both special cause variation and common cause variation in process data.
- Review and apply concepts of Components of Variation introduced in earlier material on measures of variation³/₄ Range, Difference (X-Xbar), Variance, Standard Deviation, and Sum of Squares Total (SST).

What Is The <u>Best</u> Your Process Can Be?



A "snapshot" view of the process, free of non-random influences

96)



Short-Term process capability **(Z**_{st})



- What is special (assignable) cause variation?
 - It is non-random variation which can be assigned to specific causes

¥6)

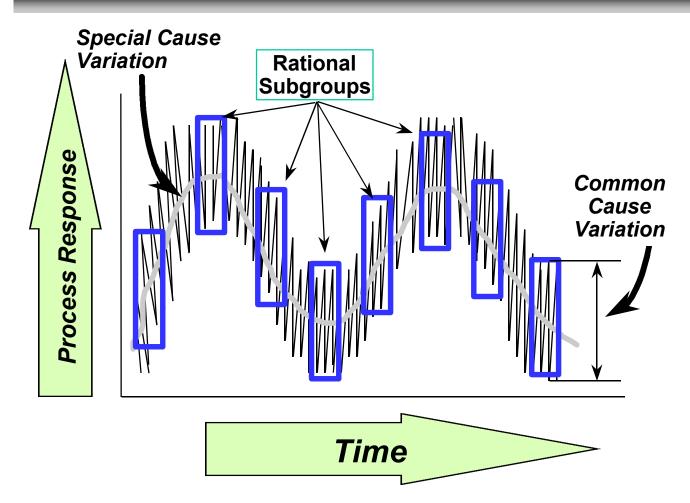
- It is controllable variation
- What is common (random) cause variation?
 - It is an inherent, natural source of variation of the process
 - It is <u>not</u> controllable variation

What is the Source of Variation?

88)

Process	Special Cause	Common Cause
NC Machines	 Operator Setup Variation between the machines Tool Wear Speed Feed Rate Tool Material Tool Angle 	 Precision of each machine Material hardness variability
Catapult		
Your Project		

Rational Subgrouping



96)

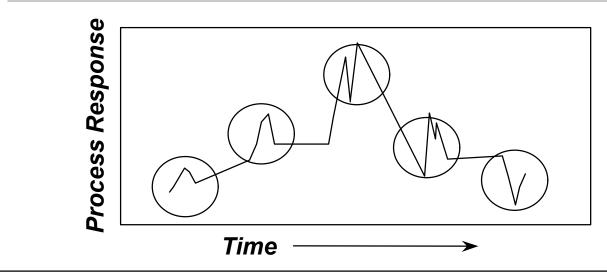
Rational Subgrouping attempts to take samples that include only common cause variation, <u>within</u> the samples. Special Cause Variation occurs <u>between</u> the samples.

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Establish Process Capability

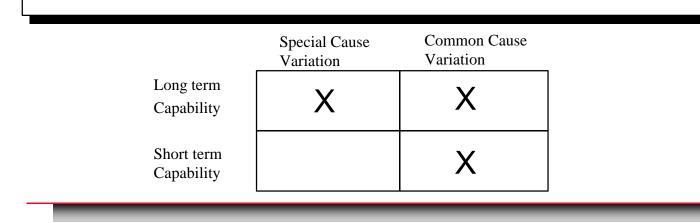


Rational Subgrouping Principles



RATIONAL SUBGROUPING CHOOSE SUBGROUPS SO THAT:

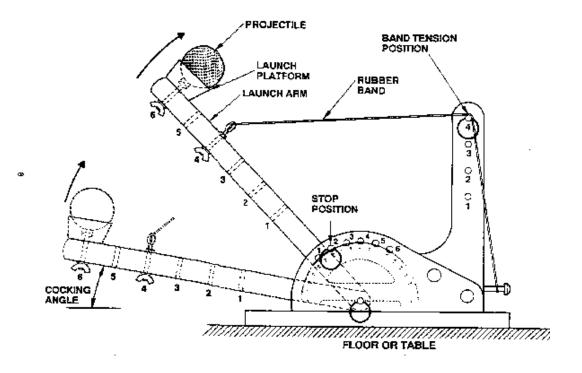
- 1. There is maximum chance for the measurements in each subgroup to be alike. A subgroup should only contain <u>common cause</u> <u>variation</u>.
- 2. There is maximum chance for subgroups to differ from one to the the next. The difference between the subgroups is the <u>special</u> <u>cause variation</u>.



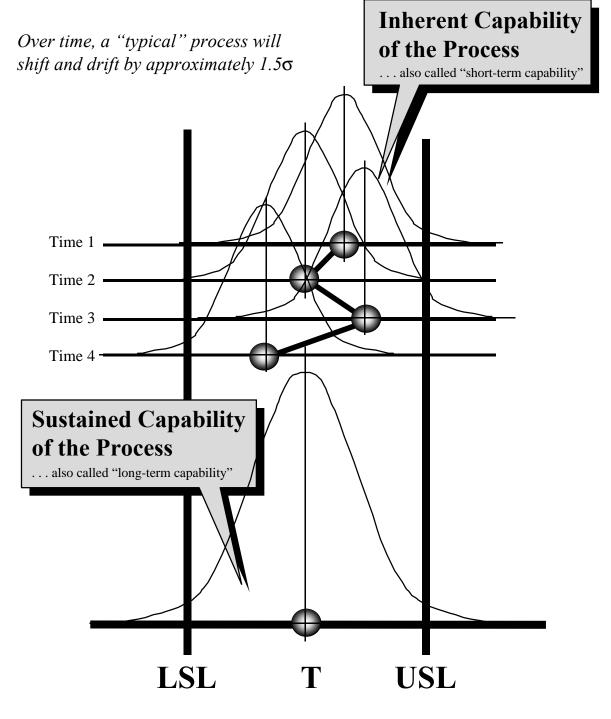
Rational Subgrouping Exercise

Based upon our discussion of the sources of variation, how would you rationally subgroup the catapult data?

(H)

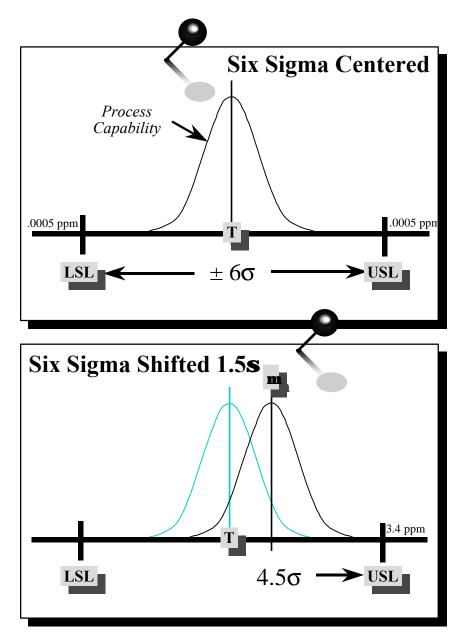


Visualizing the Process Dynamics





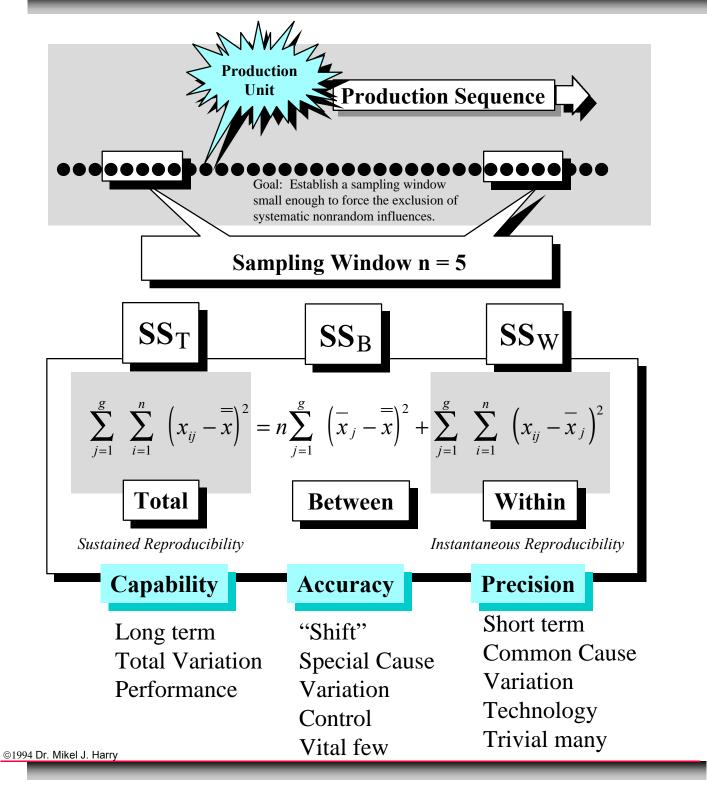
Generalizing the Correction



The 1.5s shift is used as a compensatory offset in the mean to generally account for dynamic nonrandom variations in process centering. It represents the average amount of change in a typical process over many cycles of that process.

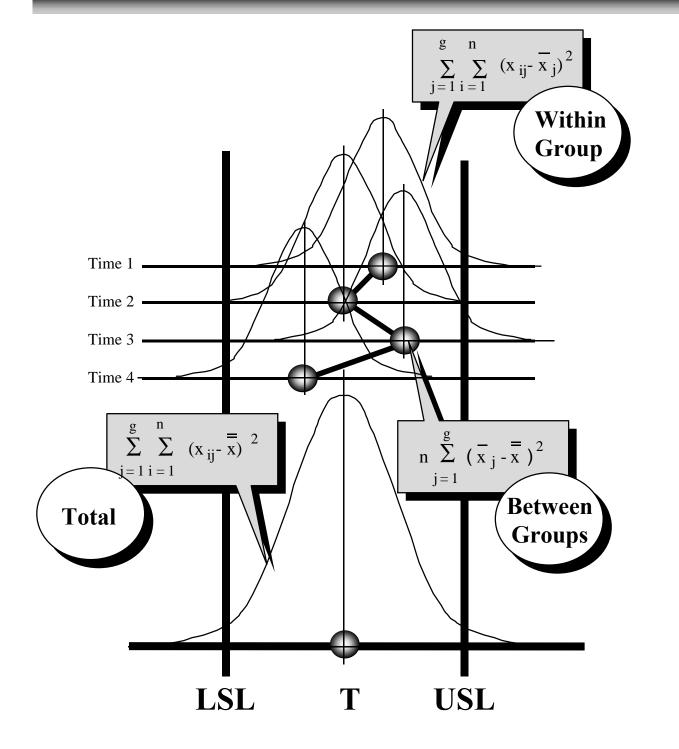
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The Components of Variation





Visualizing the Components

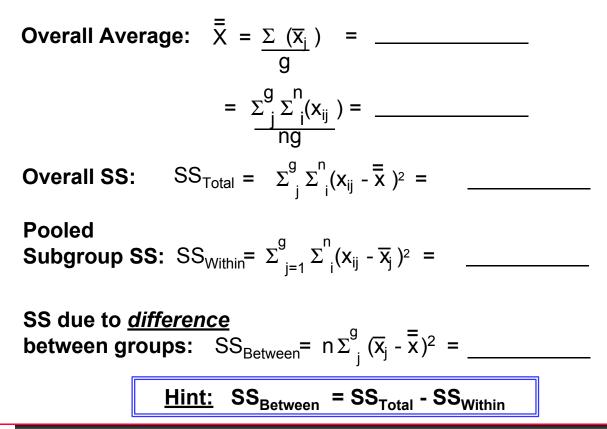


Example: Process Capability 34 the Components of Variation

	<u>Sa</u>	<u>mple (i</u>)) = data	points		<u>Subgroup</u> <u>Average</u> n Xij Xij = <u>i=1</u>	<u>Subgroup SS</u> SSj = $a^{n} (X_{ij} - \overline{X}_{j})^{2}$
j=1 i=2	i=1 1 2	i=2 2 3	i =3 3 4	i=4 4 5	i=5 5 6	n	i=1
j =3 j=4 j=5	- 3 4 5	4 5 6	5 6 7	6 7 8	7 8 9		
j=6 j=7 j=8	4 3 2	5 4 3	6 5 4	7 6 5	8 7 6		

%

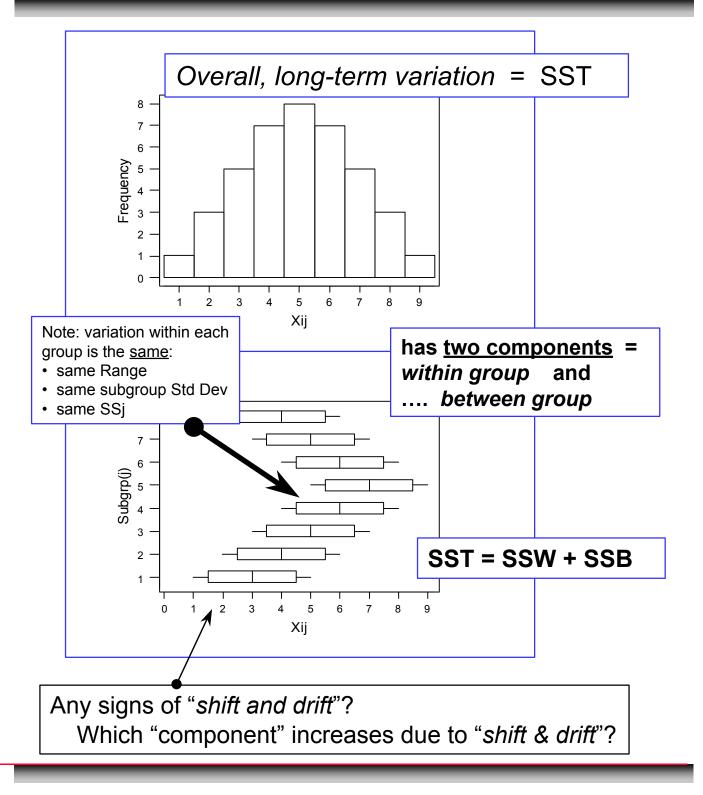
g = number of subgroups = 8, n = samples per group = 5



Establish Process Capability

Plot data: Histogram & Box Plots

96)



"Hand-calculations" using Minitab:

(H)

Xbarbar = 5.0
 [Calc > Column Statistics > Mean] or use
 Descriptive Statistics tool
 Mean = 5.0 and StdDev = s_{LT} = 1.89

2. SST = 140

calculate Diff = (Xi - Xbarbar) for all 40 datapoints—store Diff in Minitab data sheet ... then Calc > Col. > Sum of Squares > Diff] to get SST ... a double-check is to square Diff column and sum it.

- 3. SSW = 80—see work sheet and our <u>hand calculation</u>
- 4. SSB = SST SSW = 140 80 = 60 SSB = 60

"Hand-calculations" using Minitab:

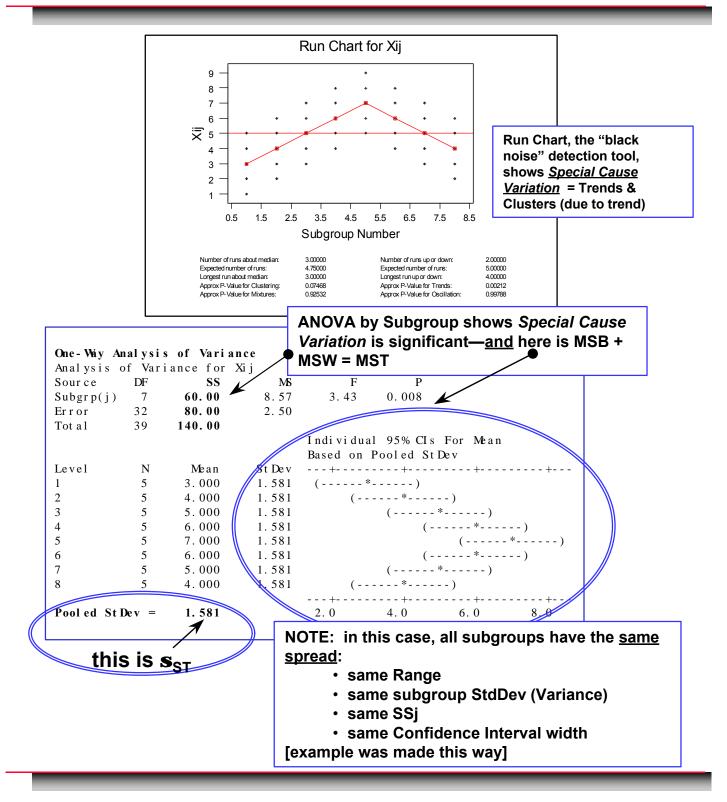
%

<u>Question:</u> Is 60 a "significant" portion of SST—i.e., is there "significant" Special Cause Variation (Shift & Drift), in this case? The ANOVA tool gives the answer: Stat > ANOVA > OneWay

Xij	Subgrp(j)	Xbarbar	Diff=(Xi-Xbarbar)	Sqrd	7
1	1	5	-4	16	
2	1	5	-3	9	Comple
3	1	5	-2	4	Sample
4	1	5	-1	1	columns from
5	1	5	0	0	Minitab data
2	2	5	-3	9	sheet
3	2	5	-2	4	5//001
4	2	5	-1	1	
5	2	5	0	0	
6	2	5	1	1	
3	3	5	-2	4	
4	3	5	-1	1	
5	3	5	0	0	
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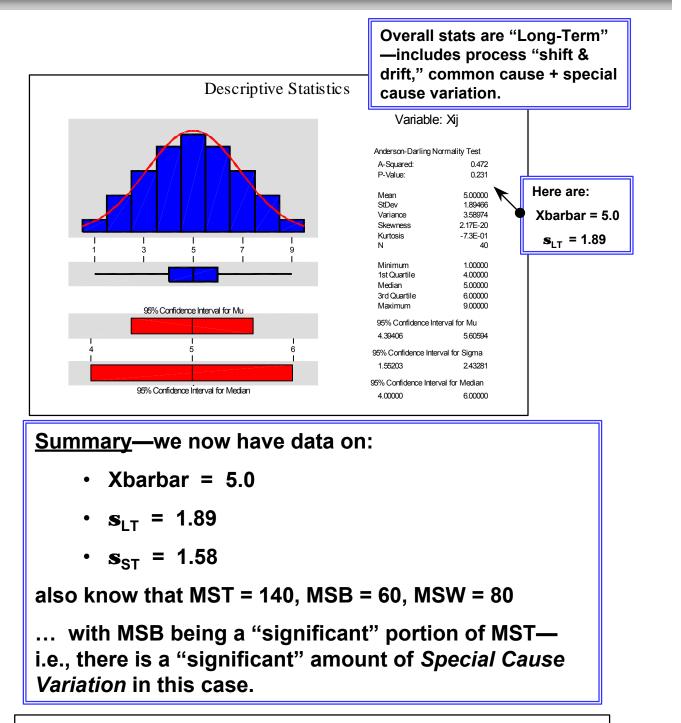
"Hand-calculations" and plots:

H)



"Hand-calculations" and plots:

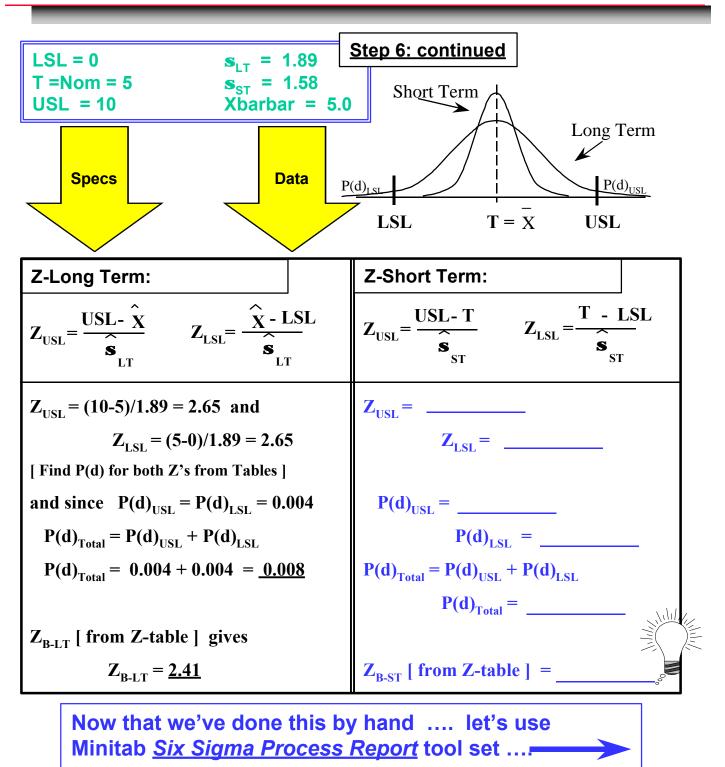
¥6)



NEXT STEP: Calculate Z values and final, overall Z_{benchmark}

Capability Calculations = Z-Bench

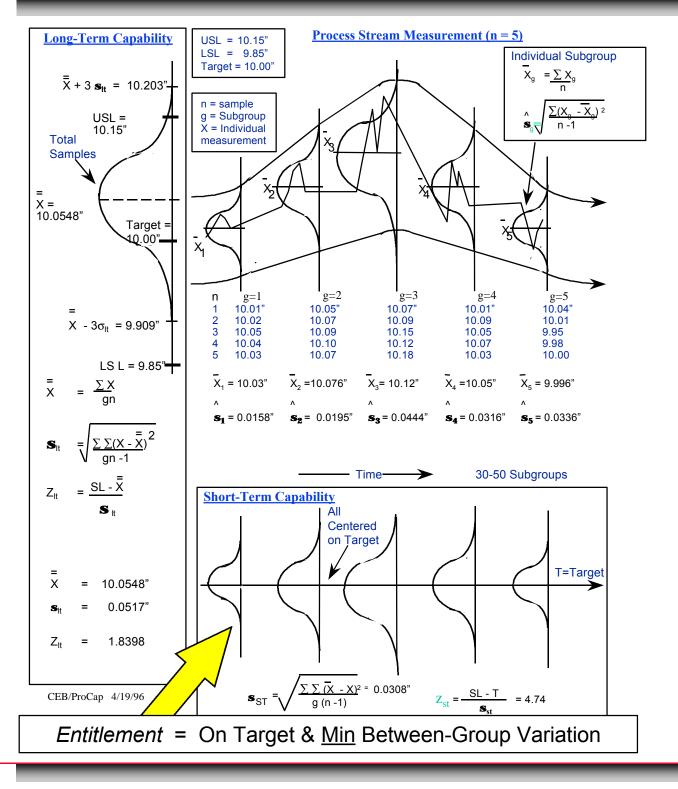
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Establish Process Capability

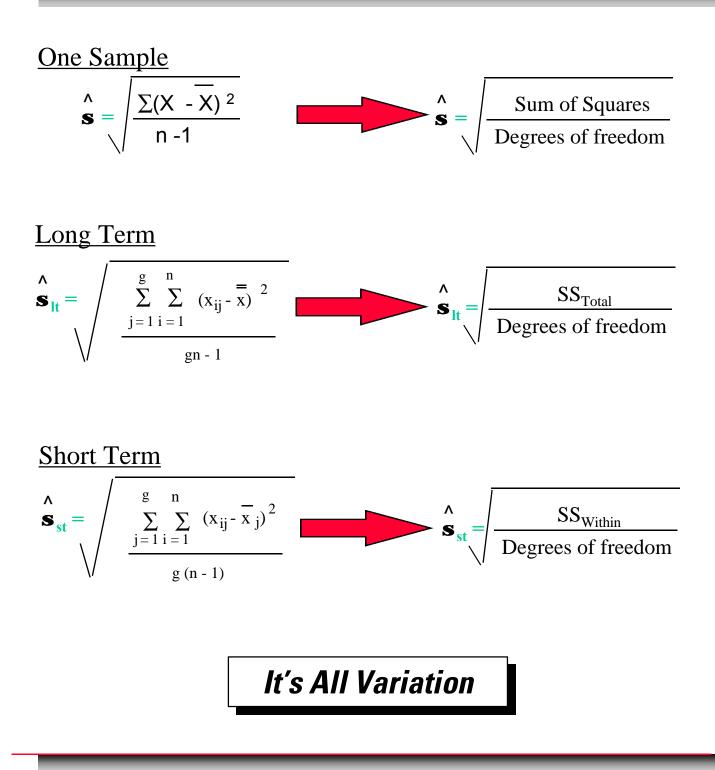
Exercise: Short- & Long-Term Process Capability ³/₄ using Minitab tools

%



Sum of Squares & Standard Deviations

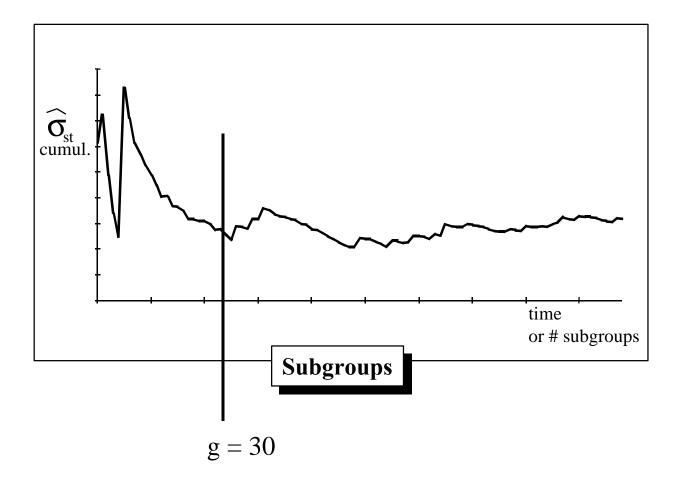
96)





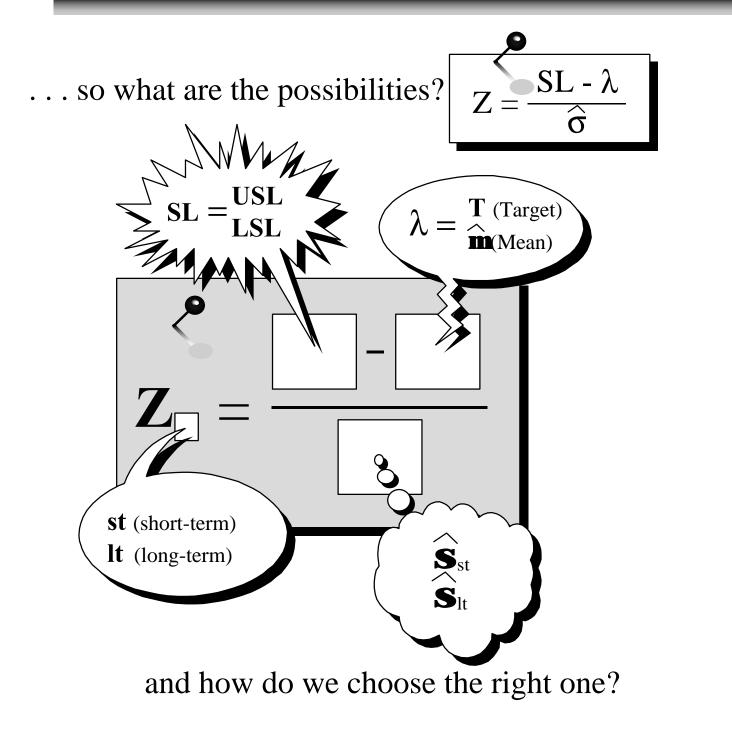
How Many Subgroups Do You Need?

Keep taking data until $\widehat{\sigma}_{st}$ stabilizes





The Universal Equation for Z



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Eq. 8.1 $Z_{st} = \frac{SL - T}{\widehat{\sigma}_{st}}$

This Z value is designated as Z.st. It describes how precise the process is at any given moment in time. For this reason, it is referred to as "instantaneous capability." It is also called "short-term capability." In context of the Six Sigma Program, it is the value used when referring to the "SIGMA" of process. It represents the true potential of the process technology to meet the given performance specification(s); I.e., what the process can do if everything is controlled to such an extent that only background noise is present, common cause variation. It reflects the process capability under the assumption of random variation and does not give consideration to the process center. This metric assumes the data were gathered in accordance to the principals and spirit of a "rational sampling" plan. For a unilateral tolerance with no target Eq. 2 should be used.

Eq. 8.2
$$Z = \frac{SL - \hat{\mu}}{\hat{\sigma}_{st}}$$

This Z value is designated as Z.lt. It is a measure of long-term capability and, when used properly, reflects process accuracy when compared to Z.st; e.g., Z.st - Z.lt = Z.shift. Expressed differently, it reflects how well the process remains centered over time. Of course, it ignores any nonrandom process centering errors which may occur between sampling intervals. This metric assumes the data were gathered in accordance to the principals and spirit of a "rational sampling" plan. However, in the instance of a unilateral tolerance with no target specification, the given Z value will reflect only short-term capability. In this circumstance, the mean becomes the target. Consequently, it will produce the same result as Eq. 1; therefore, it should be designated as Z.st and so interpreted.

Eq. 8.3 $Z = \frac{SL - T}{\widehat{\sigma}_{lt}}$

This Z value is designated as Z.lt.d. It is a measure of long-term process capability. It reflects the influence of white noise, as well as the dynamic variations due to nonrandom process centering error; i.e., shifts and drifts in the process mean across sampling subgroups. It assumes that the errors in process centering are dynamic and will eventually average out (over a great many cycles) to the target specification. In context of the Six Sigma Program, it is not often used, except in some design engineering applications. This metric assumes the data were gathered in accordance to the principals and spirit of a "rational sampling" plan. For a unilateral tolerance with no target value, this equation cannot be used. In such an event, Eq. 4 should be employed to estimate long-term process capability.

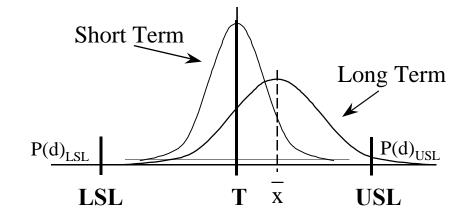
Eq. 8.4 $Z_{lt} = \frac{SL - \hat{\mu}}{\hat{\sigma}_{lt}}$

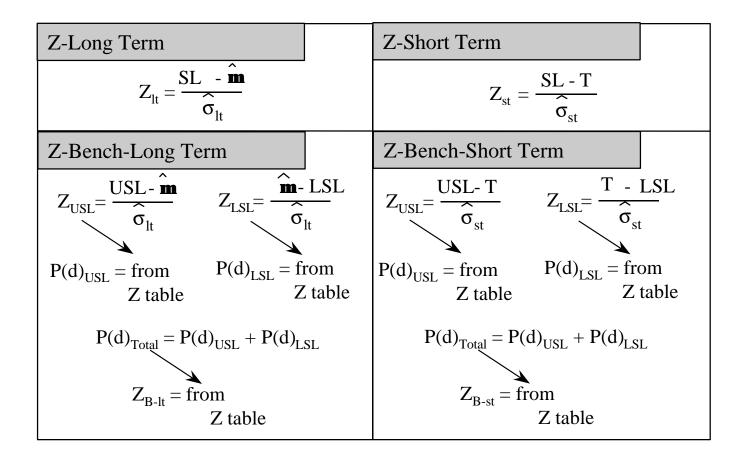
This Z value is designated as Z.It.s. It describes the sustained reproducibility of a process. Because of this, it is also called "long-term capability." In context of the Six Sigma Program, it is the value used to estimate the long-term process "PPM." It reflects the influence of special cause variation, dynamic nonrandom process centering error, and any static offset present in the process mean. From this perspective, it considers all of the "vital few" sources of manufacturing error. It is a measure of how well the process is controlled (over many cycles) when compared to Z.st. This metric assumes the data were gathered in accordance to the principals and spirit of a "rational sampling" plan. This equation is applicable to all types of tolerances.

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Z-Bench





Minitab Six Sigma Process Report

MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw MINITAB - Untitled - 9 5 9 9 9 5 7 - - -Window Help Six Sigma File <u>E</u>dit <u>M</u>anip Calc <u>S</u>tat <u>G</u>raph Editor Pro<u>c</u>ess Report. 9 **6** | 🔒 X �� R KO. 1 🚺 🎮 🖓 Product Report... 🗮 Session Design for Manufacturability Worksheet size: 100000 cells "C:\quality\Catapult.mt MTB > Retrieve Help Retrieving worksheet from file: C:\qual; Worksheet was saved on 1/28/1998 About MINITAB Six Sigma Academy Module MTB >Catapult.mtw ** C3 C4 C5 C6 C7 **C8 C9** Oper 50 Oper 2 Oper 3 Oper 4 Oper 5 Dist 50 Oper 1 Ŧ 2 50.50 49.00 50.00 50.25 49.75 50.50 1 49.25 3 49.75 51.50 50.50 49.75 49.75 1 Six Sigma Process Report X 4 5 Data are arranged as Target C1 ٠ Reports C2 C3 C4 Angle • Single column: ['Dist 50' 6 Oper 1 Demographics Oper 2 Subgroup size 10 C5 Oper 3 Č6 C7 Oper 4 (use a constant or an ID column) 5 Oner 1. Double Click \rightarrow C8 50 C Subgroups across rows of: C9 C14 50 Oder Dist 1&2 C11 Oper 1&2 2. Type in C12 C13 Dist 3&4 ~ Subgroup size Oper 3&4 "10" C14 150 C15 155 3. Type in C16 160 Lower spec: 46 C17 165 Lower and C18 C19 170 Upper spec: 54 Upper specs Dist Ang • and Target Target: 50 (optional) Select <u>0</u>K

Help

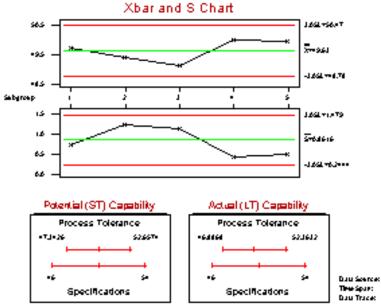
Cancel

Minitab Six Sigma Process Report

Process Performance Process Demographics 10000 Блес 101 Reported by: Ртојнов -Бералениес Ртосени: Characteriete Londor: ŝ Lipper Spec si Lower Spec: 1,000,000 hondrat - defendent -- - Paralag Opportunity: 100,000 10,000 Process Benchmarks D Р 1000 Actual (LT) Potendal (ST) М 0 166 Sigma 0.99 4,39 (A west) nő. 33,4959 5,80296 PPW Subgroup

Report 1: Executive Summary





Capability Indices

	51	Lr
Maan	50,000	43.650
SIDev	0.2002	12021
LUSE	4 5403	4.2112
ття	4.5400	9.9919
1.Denth	5	9.500 r
1.364	0.4058	0.4052
PUSL	0.00003	0.00000
PTA	0.00003	0.00022
P.folal	0.00000	0.00022
Y 📷 🖬	20	22.228 f
PPM	5.0000	22,4252
9	151	
G 94	1.98	
PD		1.48
Ppt.		ι se

Minitab Six Sigma Process Report

¥6)

Important Note:

- Using a subgroup size = 1 in the Minitab Process report results in misleading and, in most cases, wrong Z_{ST}, Z_{SHIFT}, and DPMO_{ST} values.
- This discrepancy is due to the way that Minitab estimates σ_{sτ}.
- Only the long term values are valid with a subgroup size = 1.

Subgroup Size = 1 Makes Short Term Values Invalid

Establish Process Capability



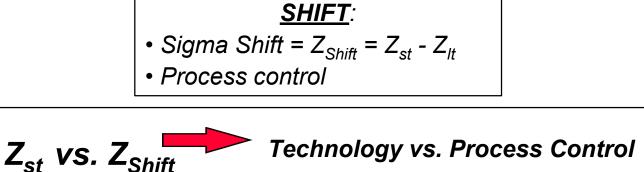
Is it Control or Technology?

LONG TERM CAPABILITY

- *Z*_{*lt*}
- Defined by technology and process control
- Real process performance
- 6*s* means: Z_{it} = 4.5

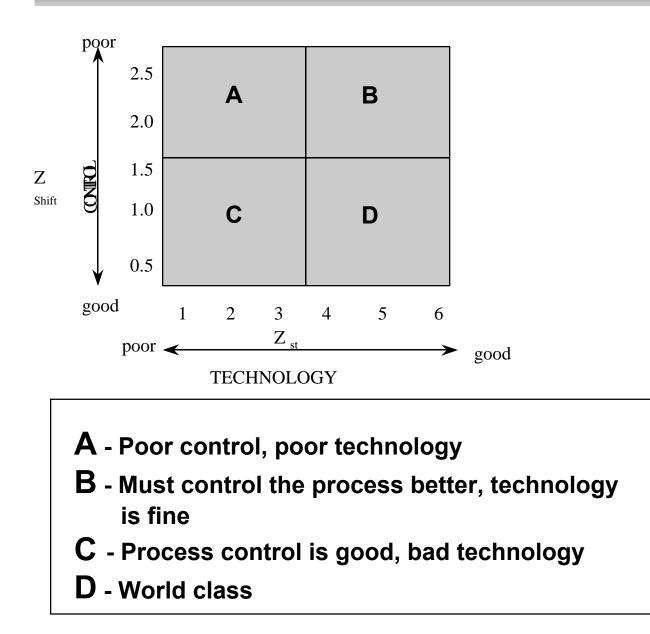
SHORT TERM CAPABILITY

- *Z*_{st}
- Limited by technology
- "Entitlement" the best performance the process can have
- 6s means: Z_{st} = 6.0





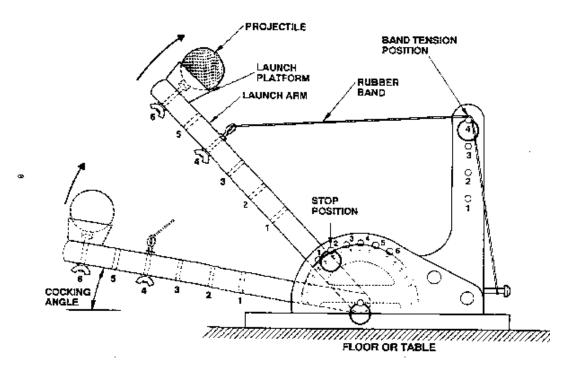
A great way to tie it all together...





Perform a capability analysis of your team's catapult data using the Minitab Six Sigma Process Report.

%





More Process Capability Terminology

	Short Term	Long Term
	(Pooled)	(Overall)
	Standard	Standard
	Deviation	Deviation
Target	$C_{p} = \frac{SL-T}{3s_{st}}$	$P_{p} = \frac{SL-T}{3s_{lt}}$
Mean	$C_{pk} = \frac{SL-X}{3s_{st}}$	$\frac{P_{pk}}{P_{pk}} = \frac{SL-X}{3s_{lt}}$



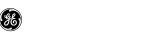
Relating Back to Z

	Short Term	Long Term
	(Pooled)	(Overall)
	Standard	Standard
	Deviation	Deviation
	Eq. 8.1	Eq. 8.3
Target	$Z_{st - Closest SL} =$	P _p
	3C _p	
	Eq. 8.2	Eq. 8.4
Mean	C _{pk}	$Z_{lt - Closest SL} =$
		3P _{pk}



Continuous data is characterized by:

- mean numerical average, a measure of central tendency
- median "middle" observation if arranged in sequence
- standard deviation measure of variation, or dispersion
- variance square of standard deviation
- A normal curve may be used to describe a process that is experiencing only random variation. All normal distributions can be related to the standard normal distribution which has a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one.
- A sample is a subset of a population. In general, a good sample has the same characteristics as the population under study.



- Basic statistical summaries, histograms, dotplots, boxplots, and run charts are used to visualize data and better understand a process.
- The z-value is the number of standard deviations that will fit between the mean and the respective specification limit.
- The z-value corresponds to a probability of defect, or the area under the curve outside the specification limits.
- The z-value is a non-dimensional quantity that enables us to compare different processes - it represents the process capability.



Define Defects, Units and Opportunities with your team. Be sure the definitions make sense and are consistent with similar processes. Benchmark where possible.

¥6)

- Defects will be stated as Defects Per Million Opportunities. Discrete data is generally considered long term data.
- For discrete data, the L1 spreadsheet or Minitab Six Sigma Product Report will be used to calculate capability from defects and opportunities.

—Determine DPMO (which is long-term), then determine the corresponding Z value (LT capability).



- Often, you must assume a shift value (default 1.5) to estimate short term capability.
- Our customers experience the long term capability of the process.
- Rolled Throughput Yield (Y_{RT}) illustrates how complexity (i.e. a multi-process system) affects quality.
- Six Sigma cannot be reached by inspection.

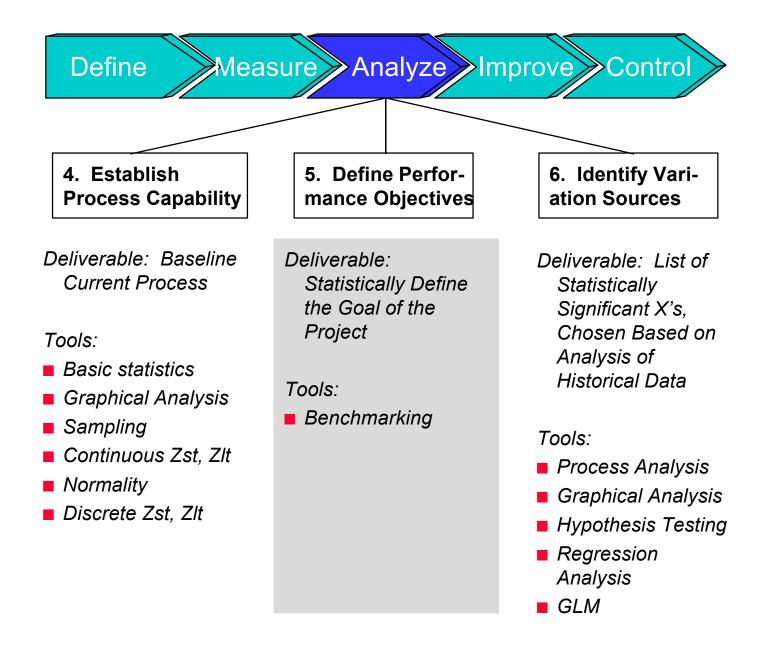


- Rational Subgrouping refers to grouping the data for analysis in a meaningful way to understand variation. Rational Subgrouping attempts to select groups of data such that mainly common cause variation is within groups, and mainly special cause variation is between groups.
 - Special Cause = Between group variation, due to assignable causes, non-random influences
 - Common Cause = Within group variation, inherent in a process, random influences
- The Sum of Squares (SS) reflects the different types of variation as described above. The Sum of Squares Total (SST) is equal to the Sum of Squares Between (SSB) plus the Sum of Squares Within (SSW).

- The Minitab Six Sigma Process Report is used to describe capability with continuous data.
 - displays the actual capability relative to the target distribution
 - by rationally subgrouping (subgroup size >1), long term capability, short term capability, and shift are calculated
- To minimize shift we need to reduce special cause variation.
- A subgroup that contains only common cause variation, or random variation, represents the short term capability of the process, or process entitlement (Z Bench).
- When a subgroup contains both common cause and special cause variation, this data represents the long term capability of the process. The shift (from Z_{ST} to Z_{LT}) occurs over many cycles of the process.



Analyze Phase





Define Performance Objectives

Step 5: Define Performance Objective

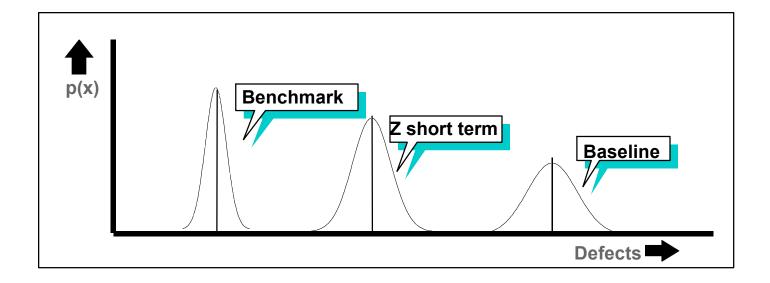
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By the end of Step 5, the BB/GB will have:

Statistically defined the goal of the project

Defining Performance Objectives

(H)



Benchmark: World-Class performance

Z short term: The level of performance a business should be able to achieve given the investments already made

Baseline: The current level of performance

Benchmarking sets the ultimate goal, while baselining takes current measurements to monitor a process

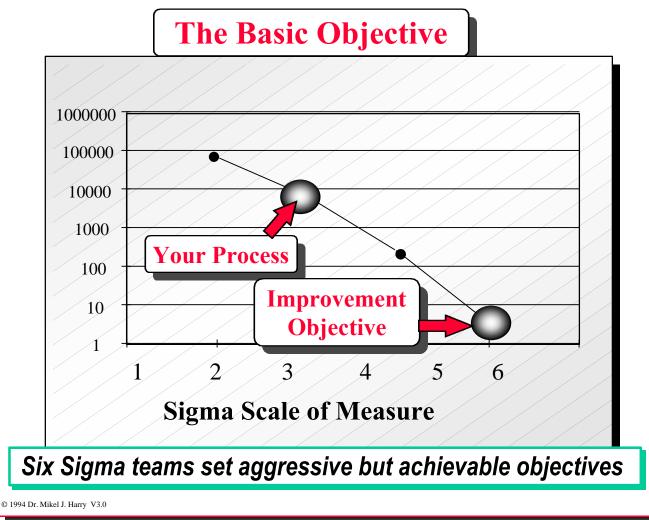
Define Performance Objectives

Define Improvement Objective For Y

- Z short term: Short-term performance of the process
- **Benchmarking:** get to best in class
- Learning curve based: get to 6 Sigma across all processes in 5 years
- Defect Reduction:

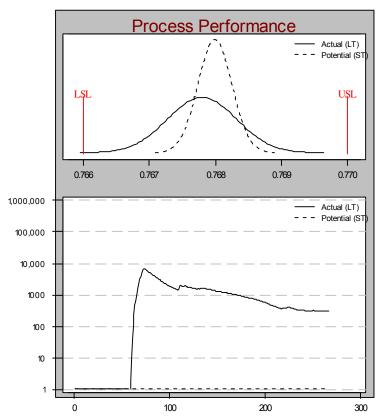
e.g., eliminate 75% of defects

96)





Process Capability



Report 1: Executive Summary

Process Demographics
Date: Reported by: Project: Department: Process: Characteristic: Units: Upper Spec: Lower Spec: Nominal: Opportunity:
Process Benchmarks
Actual (LT) Potential (ST)

3.42

309

6.00

0

Sigma

(Z.Bench)

PPM

Nature of Benchmarking

Benchmarking is the process of continually searching for the best methods, practices and processes, and either adopting or adapting their good features and implementing them to become the "best of the best"



(ge)

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Define Performance Objectives



Competitive Benchmarking

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Product Benchmarking

Process Benchmarking

Best Practices Benchmarking

Strategic Benchmarking

Parameter Benchmarking

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Define Performance Objectives



Benchmarking is **simple as a concept** but much more involved as a process. The ultimate payoff is that you can become the best of what you do, and continuously improve upon that superiority.

æ

Benchmarking is a means of identifying best practices and using this knowledge to continuously improve our products, services, and systems so that we increase our capability to provide total customer satisfaction.

Benchmarking ensures that best practices from competitors or best-in-class companies will be identified. These in turn will point the way to needed improvements. It can help locate new techniques and technologies that are used by best-in-class companies, whether they are competitors or non-competitors.

Benchmarking will help a company to realize the value of having a marketing focus rather than strictly an internal one.

Benchmarking is a continuous process of measuring products, services, and practices against the toughest competitors and/or those companies renowned as the leaders.

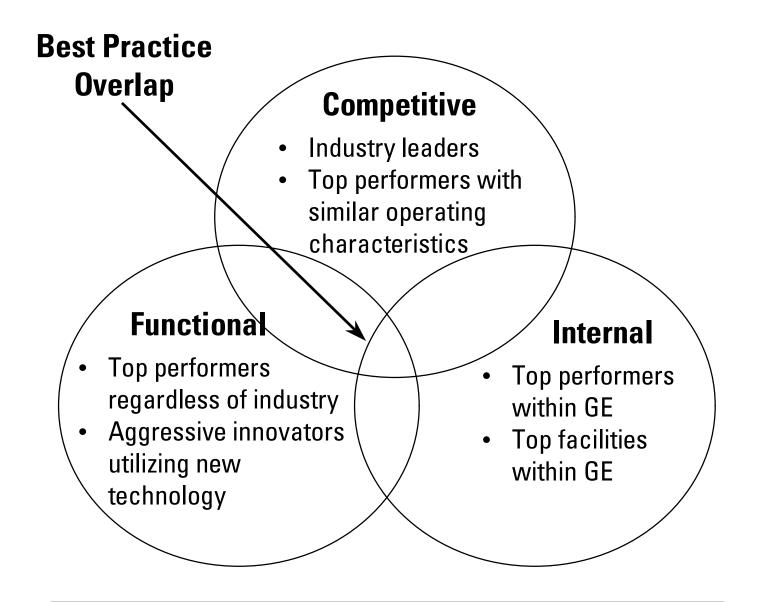
Benchmarking is a process used to identify, establish, and achieve standards of excellence, standards based on the realities of the marketplace. It is a process to be used to manage on a continuous basis.

Benchmarking draws upon the integration of competitive information, practices, and performance into the decision-making and communication functions at all levels of the business.

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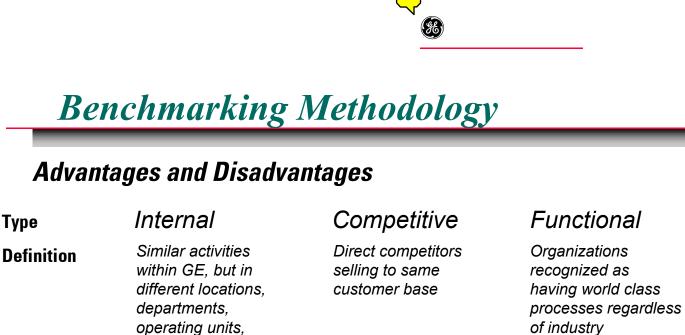
GE)

Types of Benchmarking



Understanding the benchmarking candidate pool

Define Performance Objectives



Type

Examples

- **Advantages**

Disadvantages

 Data should be easy to collect

Claims research cycle

time for GE Plastics

—GE Corporate Card

-GE Rewards Card

-GE Appliances

—GE Lighting

country, etc.

 Good results for diversified company such as GE

Limited focus

Internal bias

 Information relevant to business results

GE Appliances

-Maytag

-Whirlpool

-Siemens

- Comparable practices/ technologies
- May be a history of information gathering

Data collection

Ethical issues

Antagonistic

attitudes

difficulties

of industry

- Warehousing —L.L. Bean
- Shipment status tracking —Federal Express
- Refueling cycle time —Indy car pit crews
- High potential for discovery
- Development of professional networks
- Access to relevant databases
- Provides best out of the box thinking
- Difficulty transferring practices into different environment
- Some information not transferable
- Time-consuming

Choosing the right form of benchmarking

Define Performance Objectives

What it is and What it isn't

Benchmarking Is...

- A continuous process
- A process of investigation that provides valuable information

GE)

- A process of learning from others; a pragmatic search for ideas
- A time consuming, labor-intensive process requiring discipline
- A viable tool that provides useful information for improving virtually any business process

Benchmarking Isn't...

- A one-time event
- A process of investigation that provides simple answers
- Copying; imitating
- Quick and easy
- A buzzword, a fad

Common Benchmarking Mistakes

- 1. Internal process(es) is unexamined
- 2. Site visits "feel good," but don't elicit data or ideas

(ge)

- 3. Questions and goals are vague
- 4. The effort is too broad or has too many parameters
- 5. The focus is not on processes
- 6. The team is not committed to the effort
- 7. Homework and/or advanced research isn't assigned
- 8. The wrong benchmarking partner is selected
- 9. The effort fails to look outside the industry (outside the box)
- 10. No follow-up action is taken

Be wary of the pitfalls

Checklist

Identify Process to Benchmark

- Select process and define defect and opportunities
- Measure current process capability and establish goal

(ge)

Understand detailed process that needs improvement

Select Organization to Benchmark

- Outline industries/functions which perform your process
- Formulate list of world class performers
- Contact the organization and network through to key contact

Benchmarking: A Six Step Process

Define Performance Objectives

Checklist

Prepare for the Visit

 Research the organization and ground yourself in their processes

(ge)

- Develop a detailed questionnaire to obtain desired information
- Set up logistics and send preliminary documents to organization



- Feel comfortable with and confident about your homework
- Foster the right atmosphere to maximize results
- Conclude in thanking organization and ensure follow-up if necessary

Benchmarking: A Six Step Process

Define Performance Objectives

Checklist

Debrief & Develop an Action Plan

Review team observations and compile report of visit

(ge)

- Compile list of best practices and match to improvement needs
- Structure action items, identify owners and move into Improve phase



Retain and Communicate

- Report out to business management and 6s leaders
- Post findings and/or visit report on local server/6s bulletin board
- Enter information on GE Intranet benchmarking project database

Benchmarking: A Six Step Process

Sources of Information

Library Database Internal Reviews Internal Publications Professional Associations Industry Publications Special Industry Reports Functional Trade Publications Seminars Industry Data Firms Industry Experts University Sources **Company Watches** Newspapers **Advertisements** Newsletters **Original Research** Customer Feedback Supplier Feedback Telephone Surveys Inquiry Service Networks World Wide Web

96)

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Project: A515.1-Pipe and Flexible <u>Metal Hose Contamination</u>

%

Project Goal(s)

Elimination of contamination in Gas Turbine Piping and Tubing

Establish cleaning methods for Gas Turbine Piping and Tubing

Reduce contamination related SNs (Service notices)



Benchmarking Process

Identified 5-10 national pipe fabrication shops from the Thomas Register

Selected shops (2) that manufacture piping for the food industry (higher cleanliness standards than mfgs. Of oil field piping)

Polled shops (telephone polls) to determine pipe cleaning practices



Identified one viable new cleaning method...The Compri Technic -Contamination Eliminator System

— Foam Projectiles launched through pipes and tubes with 85-150 PSI compressed air

(H)

Invited Compri Technic to Greenville for product demo with Greenville Engineering and Manufacturing Teams



Establish which Gas Turbine Piping Systems CE system can be used on

(H)

Develop cleaning methods

Beta Test Product at Greenville

Additional Exposure

Schenectady CASE, and Greenville Maintenance department are now evaluating the product

CE System has now been purchased by one GE Field installation site

Benchmarking Example: 20 mins.

For one or more projects in your group

 Identify areas of your process that you would like to benchmark

(ge)

- Make a list of possible benchmarking partners
- Indicate whether the partner is a competitor, non-competitor, in a similar market, or in a different market

One or two teams will be asked to report their findings.

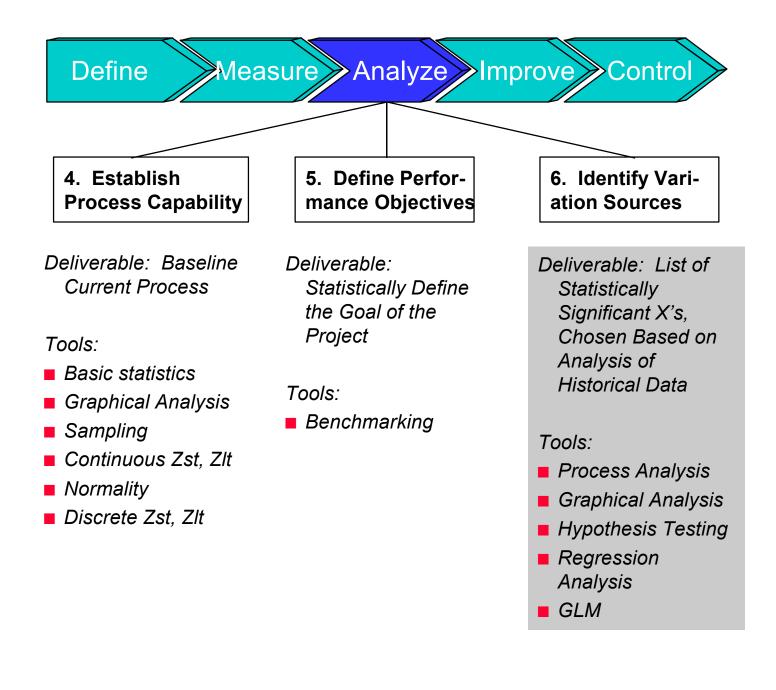


A performance objective is determined by using Z-short term, benchmarking, or defect reduction goals.

Benchmarking is a process of identifying best practices, measuring our own practices against those best practices, and adapting the appropriate best practices to our own processes.



Analyze Phase



Step 6: Identify Variation Sources

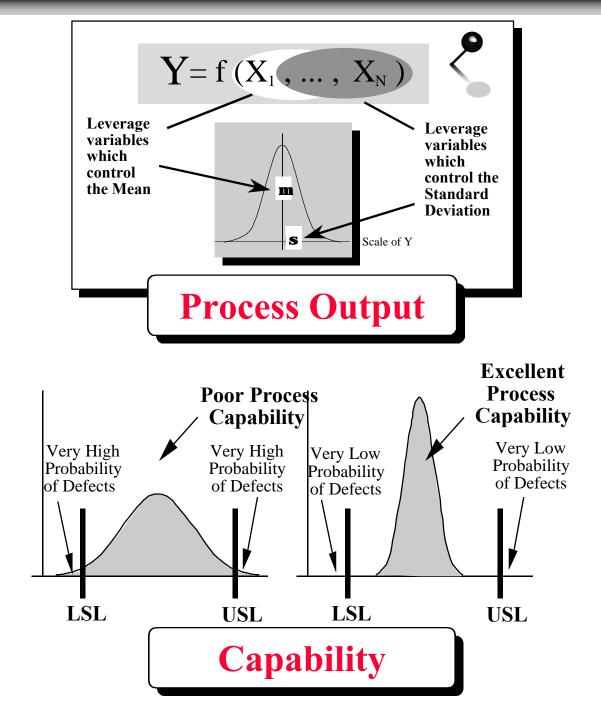
- By the end of Step 6, the BB/GB will have:
 - Generated a list of Statistically Significant Xs based on analysis of historical data

(H)

- Identified which Xs to further investigate in the Improve phase
- Gained consensus with the project team on the list of Xs for investigation
- Understand value added & non-value added analyses



The Focus of Improvement



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Tools to Identify Variation Sources

98)

Process Mapping	Understand process steps; narrow project focus
	Steps: 1, 6, Improve Phase
FMEA	Identify and prevent failures; narrow project focus
	Steps: 1, 6, 12
Cause & Effect	Understand problem: narrow project focus
	Step: 6
Pareto Chart	Prioritize items: narrow project focus
	Step: 6

The same tools taught in step 1 can be used to identify variation sources

Cause & Effect Diagram

86)



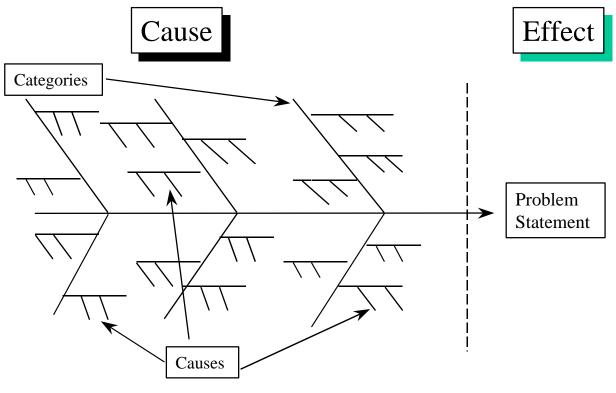
Cause & Effect Diagram (Fishbone Diagram)

Purpose:

 To provide a visual display of all possible causes of a specific problem

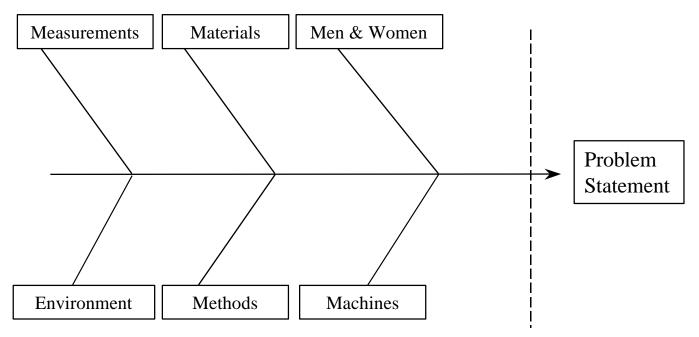
When:

- To expand your thinking to consider all possible causes
- To gain group's input
- To determine if you have correctly identified the true problem





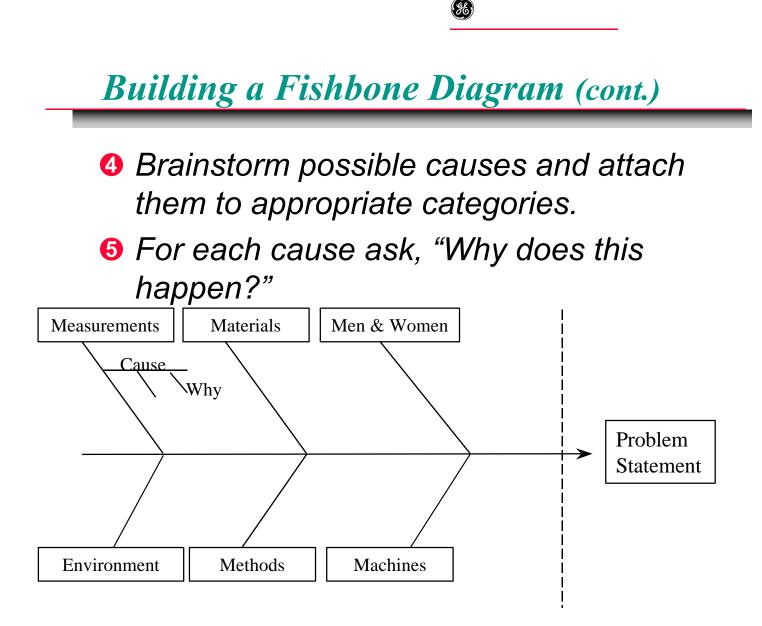
Draw a blank diagram on a flip chart. Define your problem statement.



Substitution Label branches with categories appropriate to your problem.

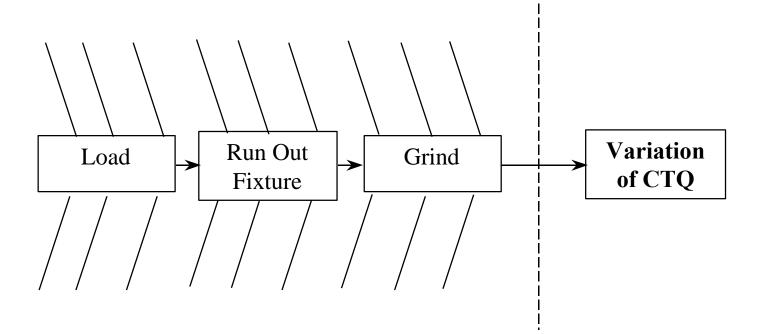
The 4 Ps

Categories can also be **Policies**, **Procedures**, **People**, and **Plant** or any other category that will help people think creatively.



- 6 Analyze results, any causes repeat?
 7 As a team, determine the three to five most likely causes.
- Observation Boost to the second state of th

Process Fishbone Example

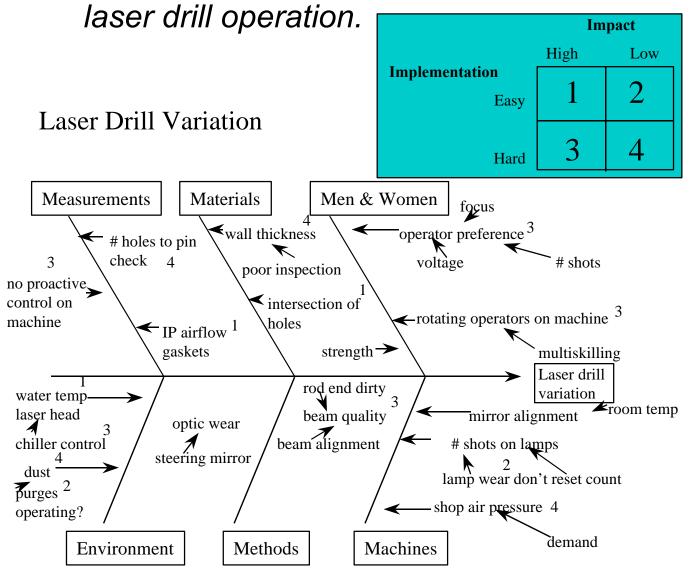


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Fishbone Example

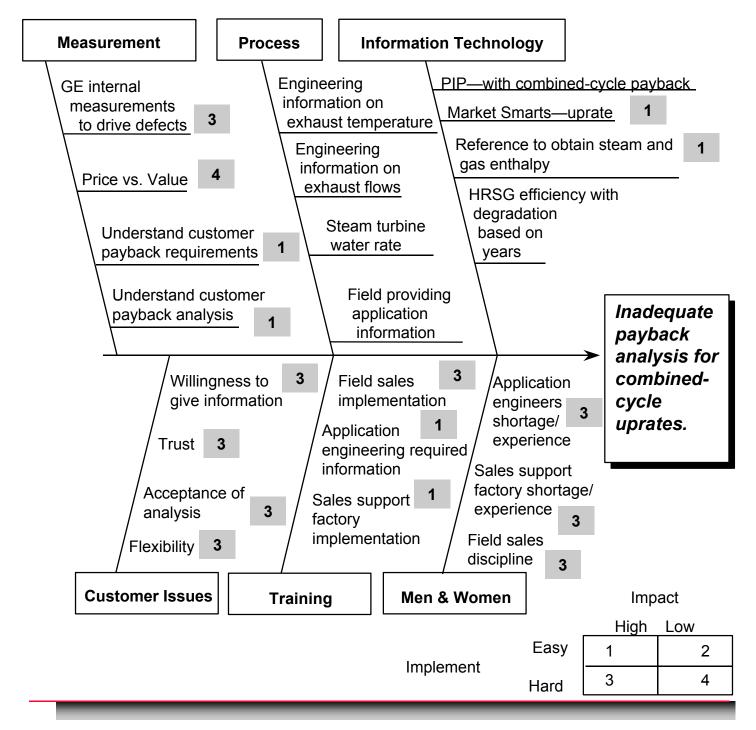
The following example was the result of brainstorming sources of variation in a



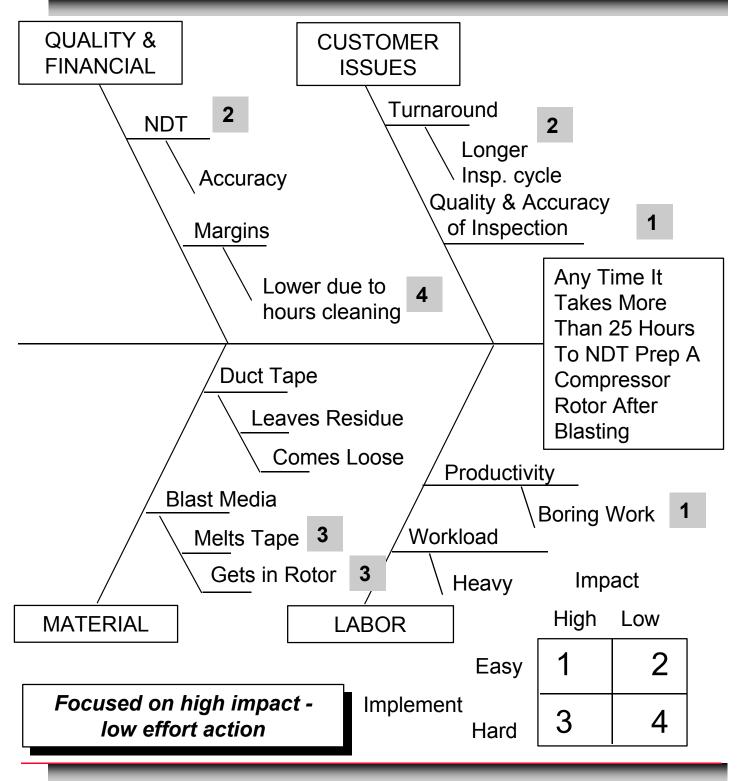
Identify Variation Sources

S171.1 CC Payback Analysis: Fishbone

(¥E)



B3095.1 Reducing Rotor Blasting Process Time: Fishbone

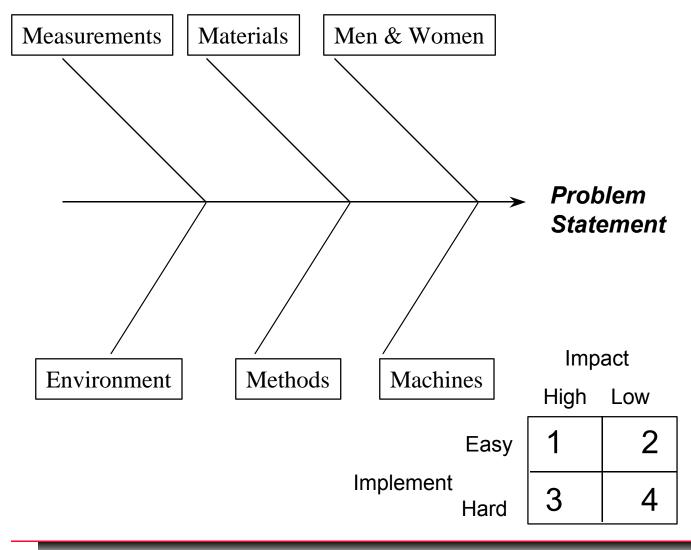


Fishbone Exercise: 20 mins.

For one or more projects on your team, construct a Fishbone diagram.

GE)

- What are main causes of your problem?
 - Use the four blocker to prioritize.



Pareto Chart



Purpose: To separate the vital few from the trivial many in a process. To compare how frequently different causes occur or how much each cause costs your organization.

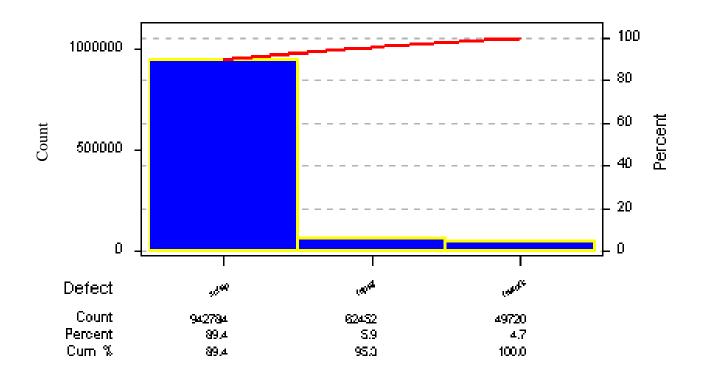
GE)

- When: To sort data for determining where to focus improvement efforts.
 - To choose which causes to eliminate first
 - To display information objectively to others



Manufacturing Losses by Type

96)



20% of causes account for 80% of the effect



Building a Pareto Chart

1. Collect data (checksheets, surveys)

TYPE OPR	REWORK	REPAIR	SCRAP
MACH. SHAPE	1167	4969	270008
FINAL AIRFLOW	5266	10236	115342
COAT	0	43	127161
LASER HOLE	25869	23683	53047
X-RAY INSP	757	7529	93205
ES HOLE	1958	16	91379
INSP	564	7907	74390
BENCH	9563	1083	43464
EDM HOLE	2126	1095	46422
FINAL WATER FLOW	/ 2450	5891	28366
TOTAL	49720	62452	942784

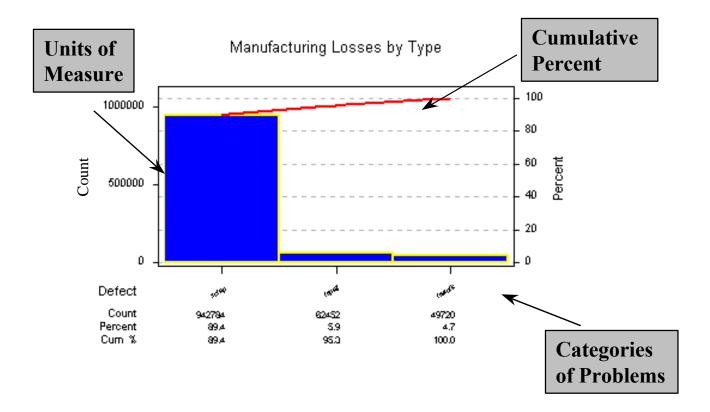
2. Total results and arrange data in descending order

type	\$
scrap	942784
repair	62452
rework	49720



Building a Pareto Chart (cont.)

3. Draw and label a Pareto Chart



- 4. Analyze results
- 5. Evaluate improvement effectiveness after change initiated by comparing before and after Pareto charts

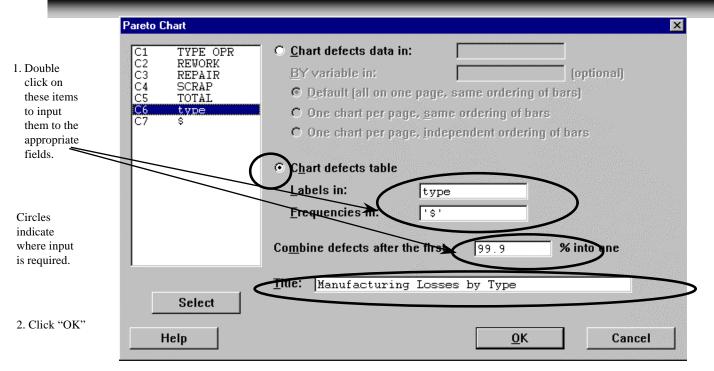
Pareto Example

MINITAB FILE: Pareto.mtw

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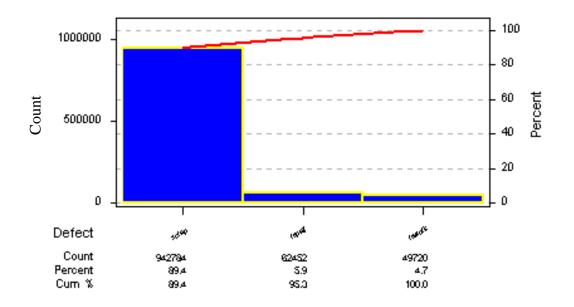
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Pareto.n		Time <u>S</u> eries <u>T</u> ables <u>N</u> onparametrics <u>E</u> DA <u>P</u> ower and Samp) ble Size	Capability Analysis (Normal) Capability Analysis (Weibull) Capability Sixpack (Normal) Capability Sixpack (Weibull)
	C2	C3	C4	Capability Analysis (Binomial) Capability Analysis (Poisson) C7 C8
4	REWORK	REPAIR	SCRAF	Sjx Sigma Process Report
1	1167	4969	2700(Six Sigma Product Report 49720
2	5266	10236	1153 ₁	62452
3	0	43	12716	Gage Run Chart 942784
4	25869	23683	5304	Gage R&R Study
5 I Draw a Pareto	chart	7529	932(Multi-Vari Chart Symmetry Plot

Pareto Chart Example (cont.) Input & Output



Manufacturing Losses by Type

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Where do most of the losses occur?

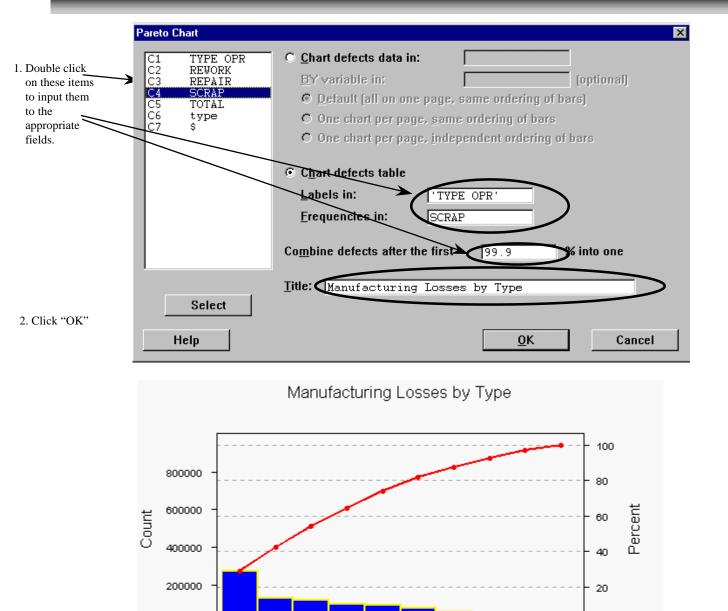
Identify Variation Sources



Pareto Exercise

- The manufacturing losses data is contained in file Pareto.mtw
- Make a Pareto chart which breaks down the scrap category by type of operation.

Pareto Exercise Answer



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0

Defect Count

Percent

Cum %

Т MACH. SHAPE

270008

28.6

28.6

CONT

127161

13.5

42.1

91079

9.7

73.9

\$3047

5.6

87.5

4,9

92.A

7.9

81.8

KEEFLOW |

115342

12.2

S4.4

GRAY

90205

9.9

64.2

0

FINALWATERFLOW

28066

30

100.0

RENCH

48

97.0

Process Map Analysis

- Value Added analysis
- Non-value added analysis

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Process Map Analysis

Types Of Analysis

Moments of truth What does the customer feel?

Nature of work





Nature Of Work: Value Analysis

Value-Added Work

Steps That Are <u>Essential</u> Because They Physically Change The Product/Service, The Customer Is Willing To Pay For Them And Are Done Right The First Time.

Nonvalue-Added Work

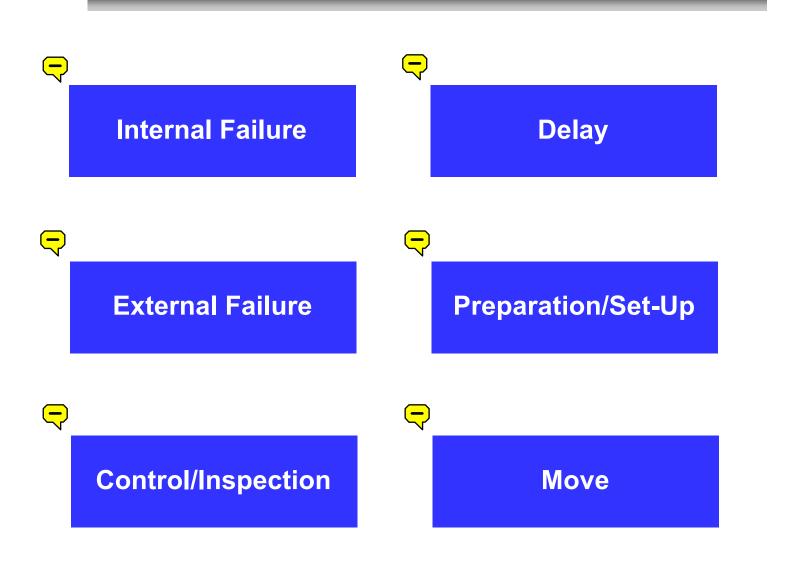
Steps That Are Considered <u>Non-</u> <u>Essential</u> To Produce and Deliver The Product Or Service To Meet The Customer's Needs And Requirements. Customer Is Not Willing To Pay For Step.

Steps That Are Not Essential To The Customer, But That Allow the Value-Adding Tasks To Be Done Better/Faster.

Value-Enabling Work

Types Of Nonvalue-added Work

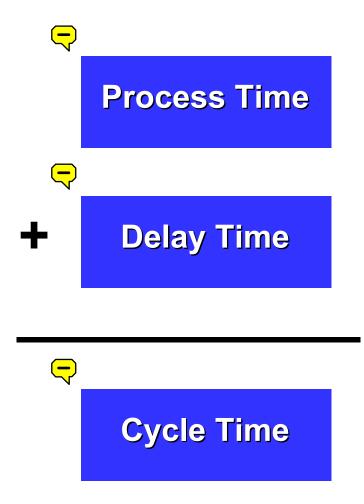
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What Does the Customer Value?

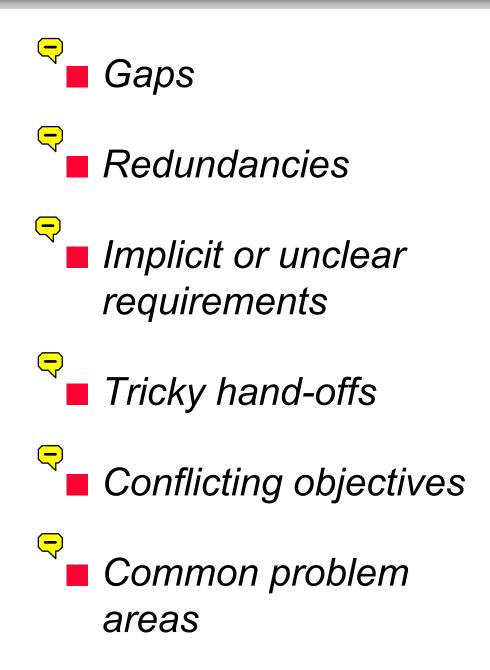




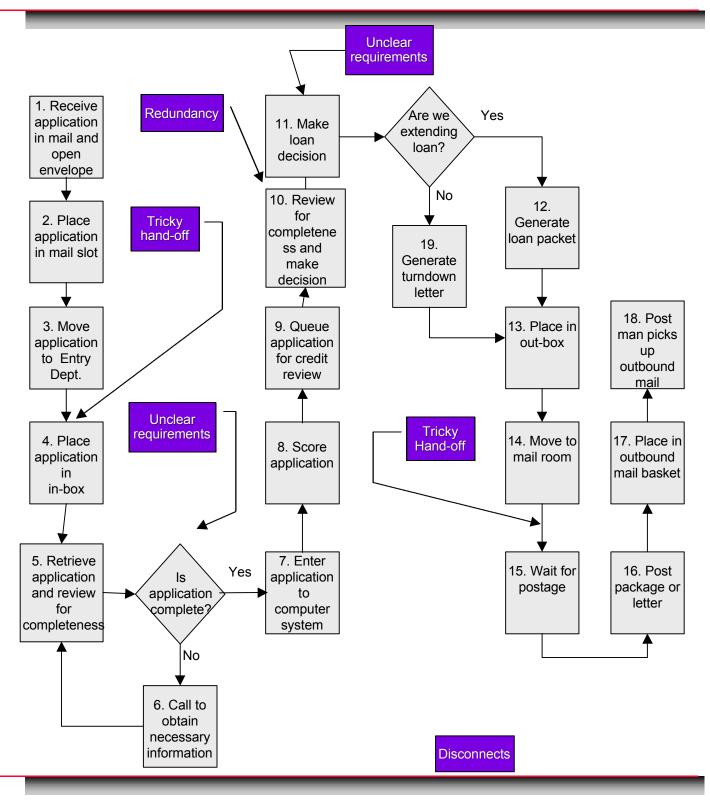




Flow Of Work: Process Disconnects



Flow Of Work: "Be The Unit"



Curve Control of the second state of the secon

Summarized Analysis

Process Step	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	1:	516	;17	718	:19	Tota	% Total	% Steps
Est. Avg. Time (Mins)	1	120	1	120	3	180	7	1	12	95	10	15	90	15	120) 2	120) 5	8	957	100%	
Value-Added	~						~				~	 Image: A start of the start of				√		~		48	5.0%	
Nonvalue-Added																						
Internal Failure						~														180	18.8%	
External Failure																						
Control/Inspection					~					~										8	.8%	
Delay				-					~				>		~		~			690	72.1%	
Prep/Set-Up																						
Move			-											~						30	3.1%	
Value-Enabling								~	•											1	.1%	
Total																				957	100%	



How to Interpret

- Use the matrix to direct your improvement efforts. Some questions you might ask as you examine the matrix include:
 - —Where are the longest Cycle times? Are they value added steps? If not, can you eliminate or moderate them to save time?
 - —What type of non-value added steps dominate your process? Inspection? Signature loops? Delays? How much time in your process do they account for? Can you eliminate or moderate them to save time?
 - What amount of time in your process comes from value enabling steps? Challenge the value enabling aspect of these steps. Ask yourself if there is any value to eliminating these steps if you could. If the answer is yes, then look for ways to persuade others to eliminate this step without causing problems in the process.

Value And Cycle Matrix – Breakout Activity (25 Minutes)

Desired Outcome

Practice using a value and cycle time matrix for process analysis

What	How	Who	Time
Team Preparation	 Choose facilitator and timekeeper. Determine timing for each activity. 	All	
Prepare Value And Cycle Time Analysis	 Using the process from subprocess mapping breakout activity, number all subprocess steps. Prepare a value and cycle time matrix (using the worksheet provided.) Classify each step as value-added, nonvalue-added or value-enabling. Estimate cycle times for each step. Compute totals for each category. Brainstorm next steps you would recommend for this project case example. 	Facilitator	
Close Exercise	Choose spokesperson	All	

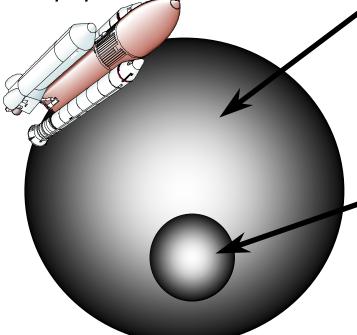
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Hypothesis Testing



The Idea of Sampling

Based on the sample, we make decisions about the population.



Why should we take a sample?

Should the sample be random?

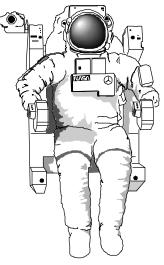
Is it possible to have sampling error?

How many samples should be taken?

What are some everyday examples of sampling?

Population (Universe): A set of characteristics that defines membership in the complete set.

Sample: A subset of members that possesses the same characteristics as that of the population.



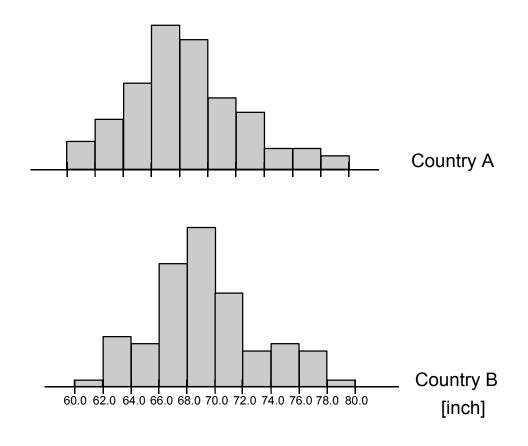
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Hypothesis Testing for Equal Means

The histograms below show the height of inhabitants of countries A and B. Both samples are of size 100, the scale is the same, and the unit of measurement is inches.

Question: Is the population of country B, on average, taller than that of country A?





A Statistical Hypothesis

 Instead use a random sample to provide evidence that either supports or does not support the hypothesis.

An assertion or conjecture about one or

To determine whether it is true or false.

more parameters of a population(s).

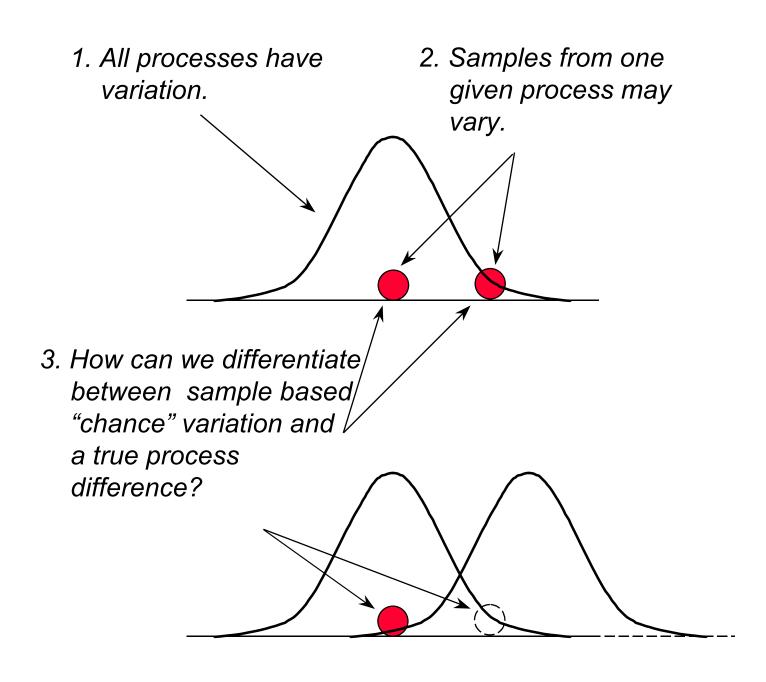
we must examine the entire

(H)

- The conclusion is then based upon statistical significance.
- It is important to remember that this conclusion is an <u>inference</u> about the population determined from the sample data.

Concept of Hypothesis Testing

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Why Do Hypothesis Testing?

1. To improve processes, we need to identify factors which impact the mean or standard deviation.

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- 2. Once we have identified these factors and made adjustments for improvement, we need to validate actual improvements in our processes.
- 3. Sometimes we cannot decide graphically or by using calculated statistics (sample mean and standard deviation) if there is a statistically significant difference between processes.
- 4. In such cases the decision will be subjective.
- 5. We perform a formal statistical hypothesis test to decide objectively whether there is a difference.

This way everyone makes the same decision.



Hypothesis Testing Protocol

- The hypotheses are always statements about the population parameters.
- State your Null Hypothesis (H_o)
 - H_o : The height of citizens in country A is greater than or equal to the height of citizens in country B ($\mu_A \ge \mu_B$).
- State your Alternative Hypothesis (H_a)
 - H_a : The height of citizens in country A is less than the height of citizens in country B ($\mu_A < \mu_B$).
- Test Alternative Hypothesis with Statistical Test
- Based on the test result, we reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis H_o.







Null Hypothesis (H_o):

- Usually describes a status quo
- The one you assume
 unless otherwise shown
- The one you reject or fail to reject based upon evidence

Signs used in Minitab: = or ≥ or ≤

Alternative Hypothesis (H_a):

- Usually describes a difference
- Signs used in Minitab:
 ¹ or < or >

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Hypothesis Testing Guilty vs. Innocent Example

The USA justice system can be used to illustrate the concept of hypothesis testing.

In America we assume innocence until proven guilty. This corresponds to the null hypothesis.

It requires strong evidence, "beyond a reasonable doubt," to convict the defendant. This corresponds to rejecting the null hypothesis and accepting the alternative hypothesis. **More specifically, we have significant evidence to support that a difference exists.**

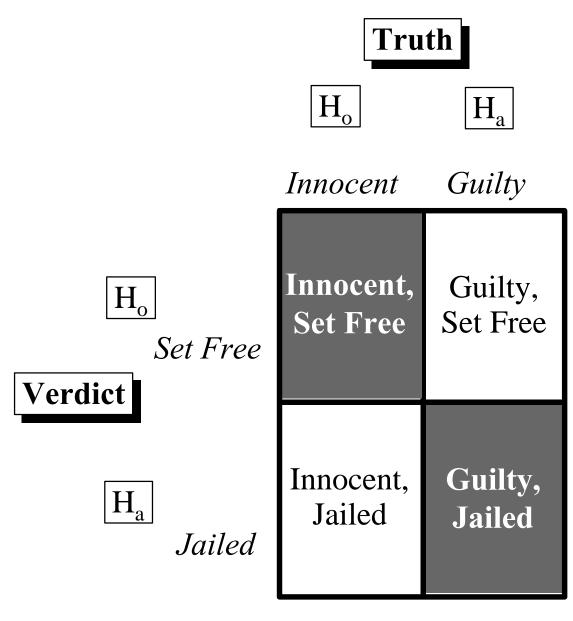
> H_o : Person is not guilty. H_a : Person is guilty.

What are the possible outcomes when the truth is known?

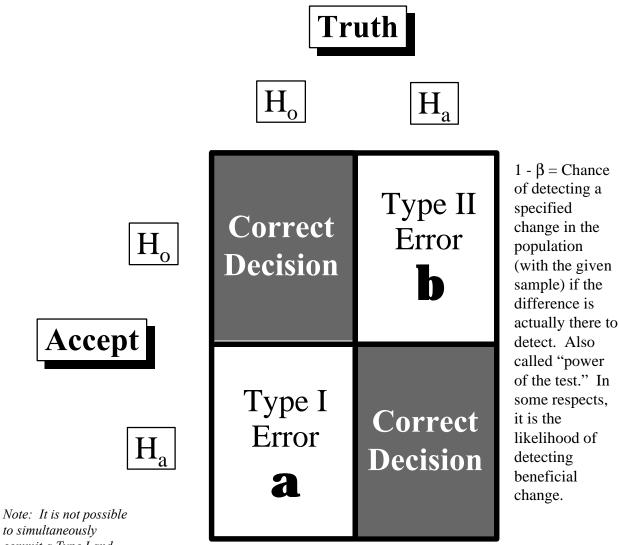


Evaluation of Decision Error

Four possible outcomes that determine whether a decision is correct or in error:



Evaluation of Decision Error



to simultaneously commit a Type I and Type II decision error. In short, either an alpha or beta decision error can be made, but not both.

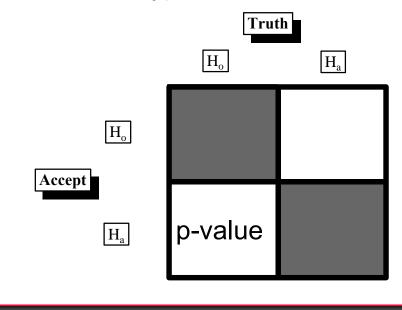
1 - α = Confidence that an observed outcome in the sample is "real" (i.e., the outcome is not due to random sampling error and, therefore, reflects the true state-of-affairs in the population).



 Alpha is the maximum acceptable probability of being wrong if the alternative hypothesis is selected.

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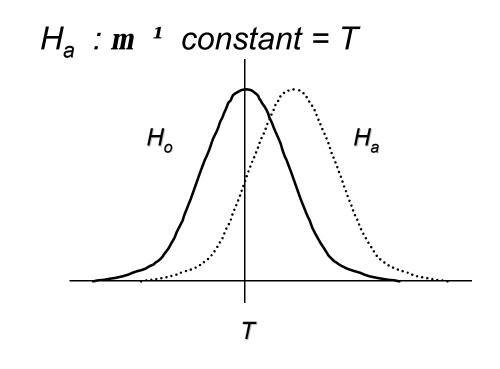
- The p-value is the probability that you will be wrong if you select the alternative hypothesis. This is a Type I error.
- Unless there is an exception based on engineering judgment, we will set an acceptance level of a Type I error at a = 0.05.
- Thus, any p-value less than 0.05 means we reject the null hypothesis.





One Sample Hypotheses

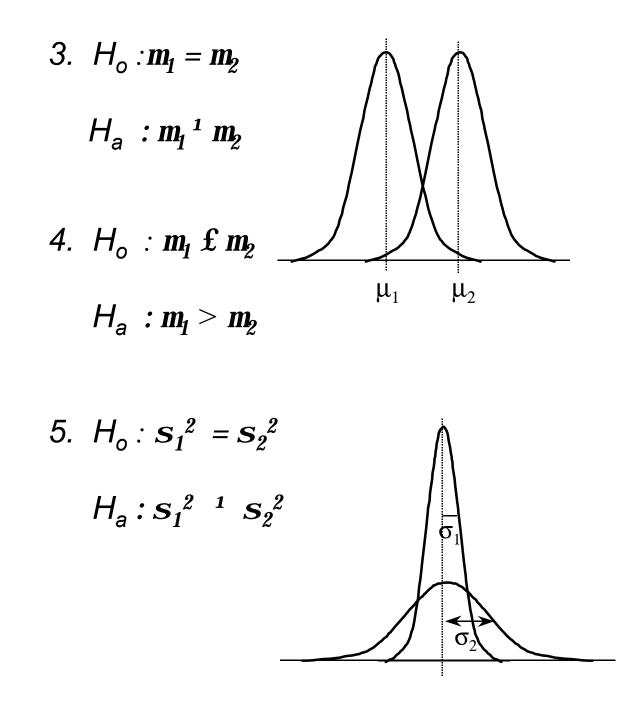
1. H_o : m = constant = T



2. H_o : s^2 = constant

 H_a : s^{2-1} constant

Two Sample Hypotheses

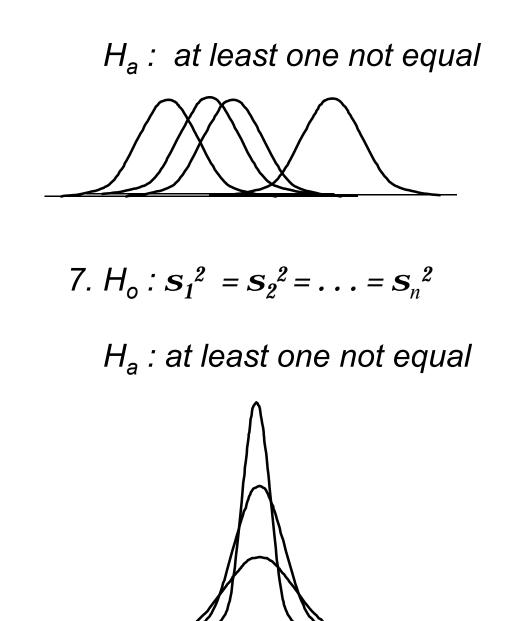


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Multi Sample Hypotheses

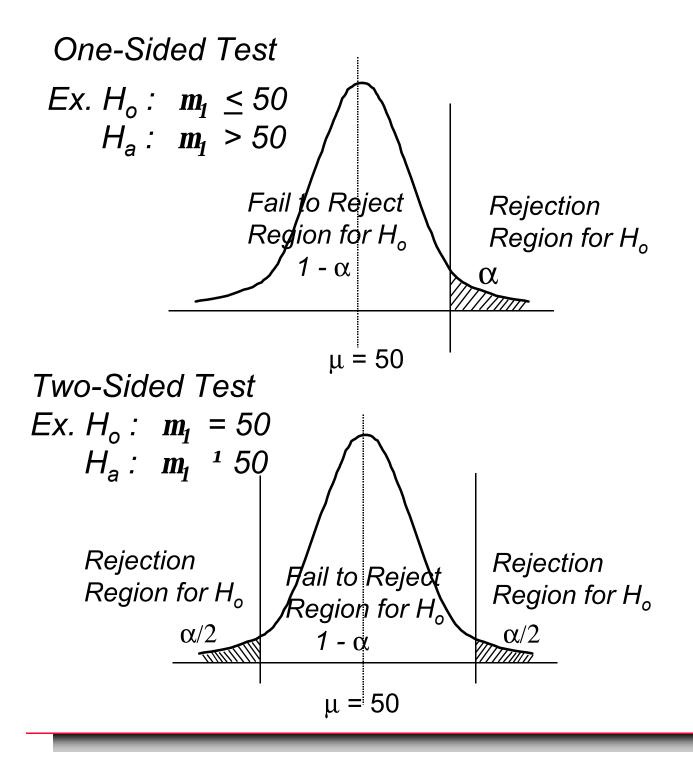
6.
$$H_o: m_1 = m_2 = \ldots = m_n$$

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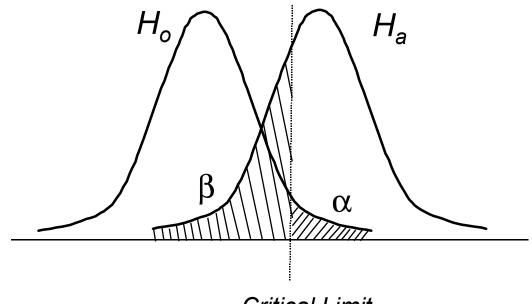




Types of Hypothesis Tests







Critical Limit

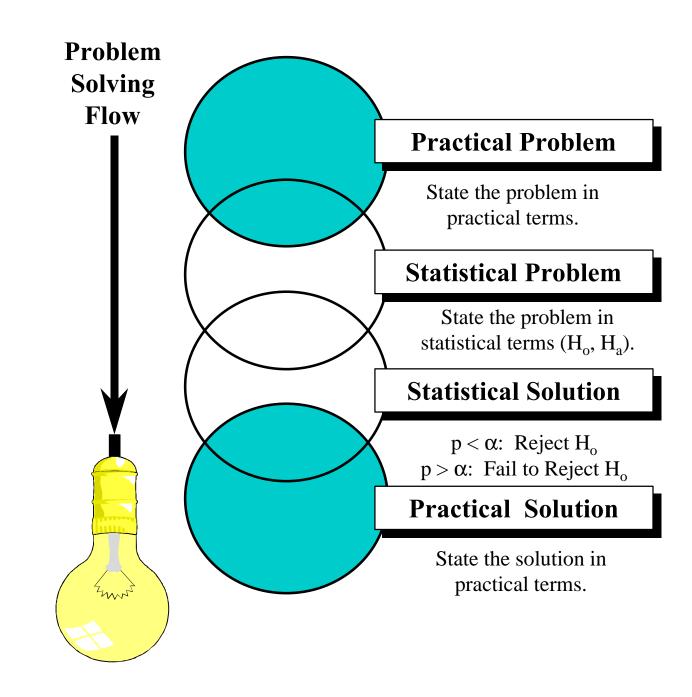
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a and *b* are represented by distinct regions. We cannot simultaneously make a Type I and Type II error.



Bridging the Real World



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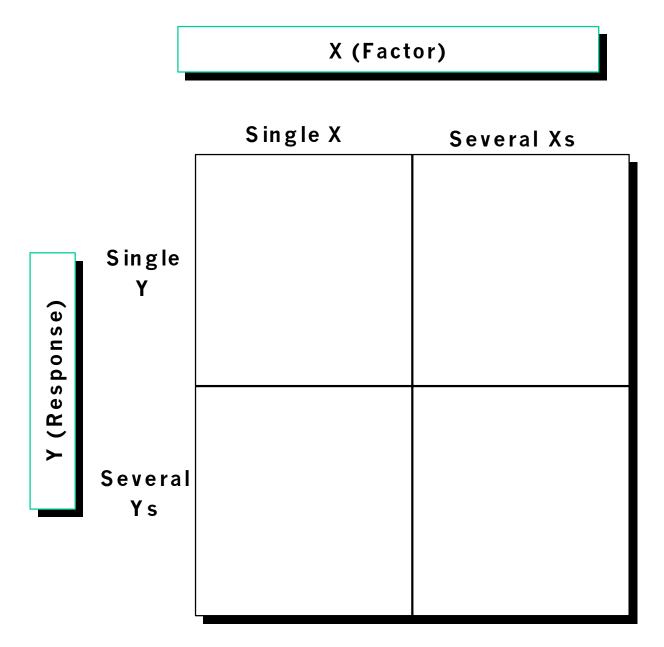


Data Analysis





Bird's Eye View (Bird In Orbit)





Hypothesis Tests Summary

Normal Data

Variance Tests

- χ^2 Compares a sample variance to a known population variance.
- F-test- Compares two sample variances.
- Homogeneity of Variance Bartlett's - Compares two or more sample variances

Means Tests

- t-Test 1-sample -Tests if sample mean is equal to a known mean or target.
- t-Test 2-sample -Tests if two sample means are equal.
- ANOVA One Way Tests if two or more sample means are equal.
- ANOVA Two Way- Tests if means from samples classified by two categories are equal.
- Correlation- Tests linear relationship between two variables.
- Regression Defines the linear relationship between a dependent and independent variable. (Here, "Normality" applies to the residuals of the regression

Non-normal Data

Variance Tests

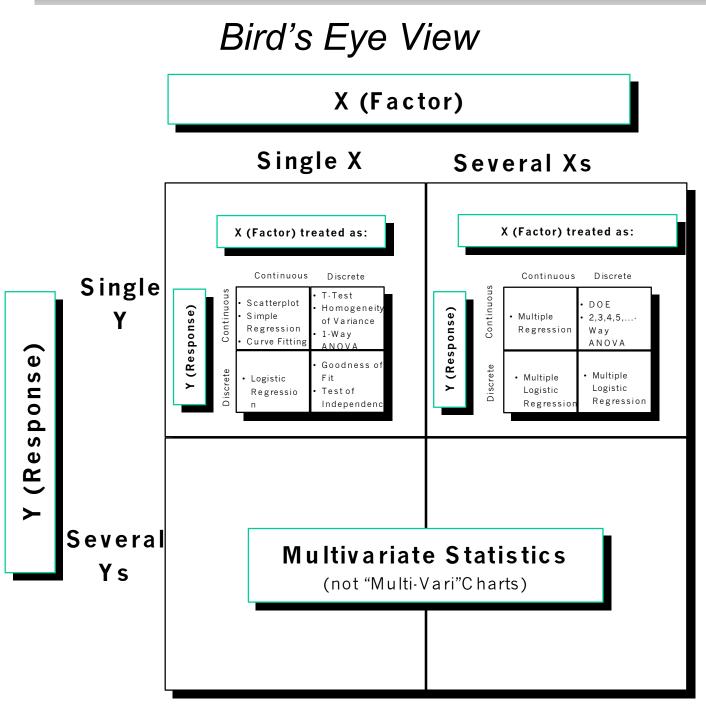
Homogeneity of Variance Levine's- Compares two or more sample variances.

Medians Tests

Mood's Median Test- Another test for two or more medians. More robust to outliers in data.

Correlation-Tests linear relationship between two variables.



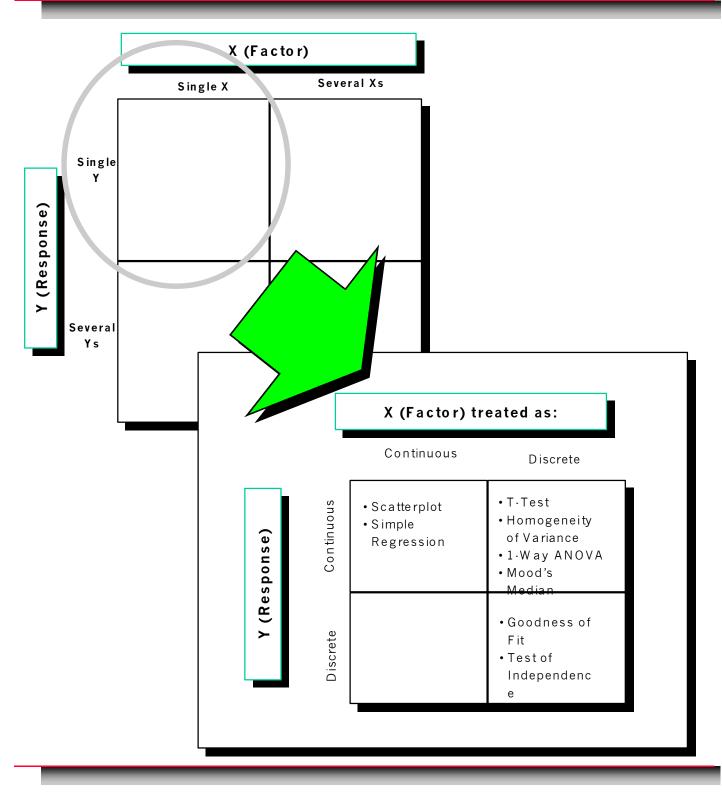


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Add non-parametrics to the table

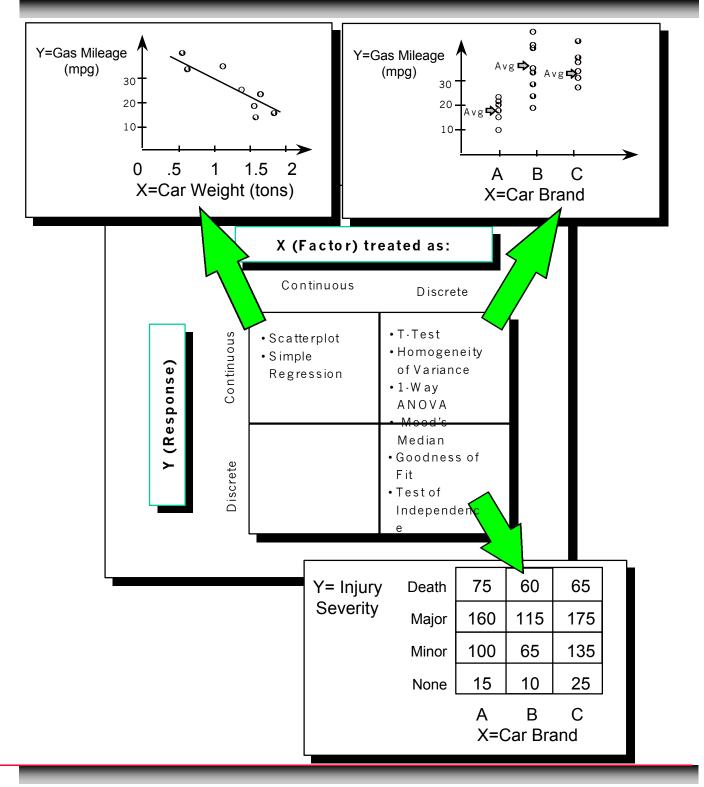


What We Will Be Covering In Analyze





Examples



Data Analysis

The tools that will be discussed during the Analyze portion of the training include the following:

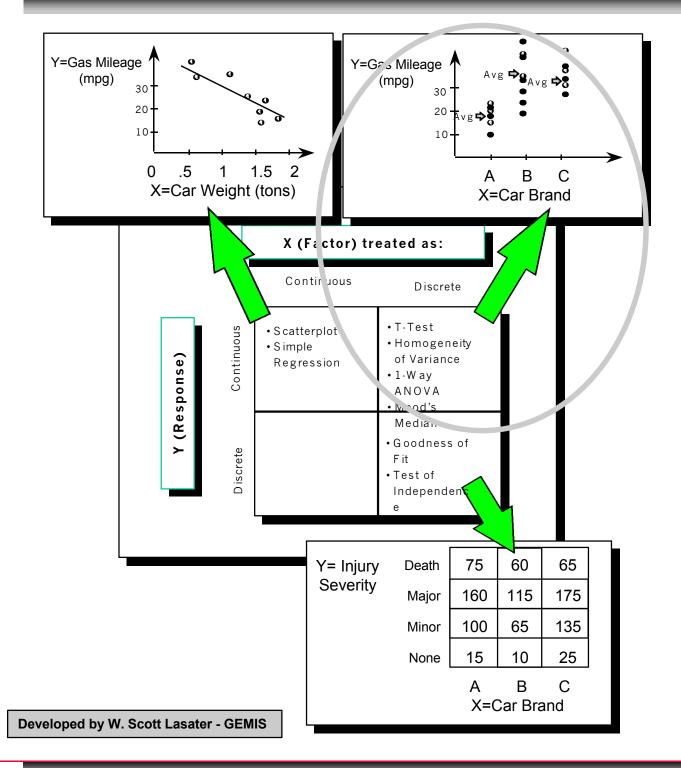
96)

- 1-Sample and 2-Sample T-tests
- Homogeneity of Variance
- 1-Way ANOVA
- Goodness of Fit test, Test of Independence (Chi-Square)
- Scatterplot
- Simple Regression
- Non-parametric data

Hypothesis Testing: Continuous Y; Discrete X

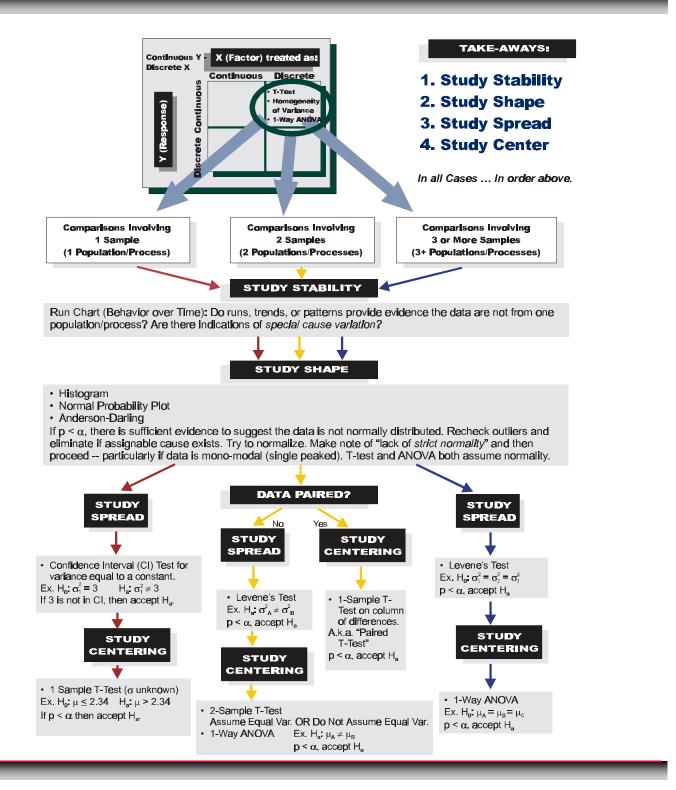
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Continuous Y; Discrete X



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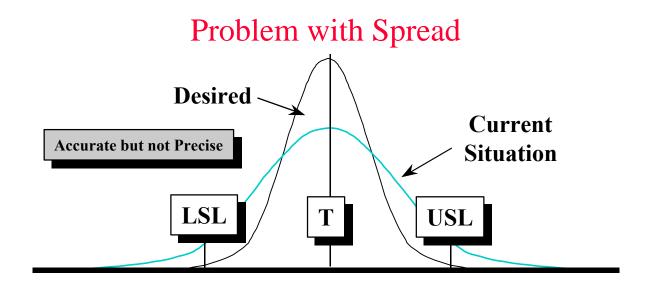
Data Analysis

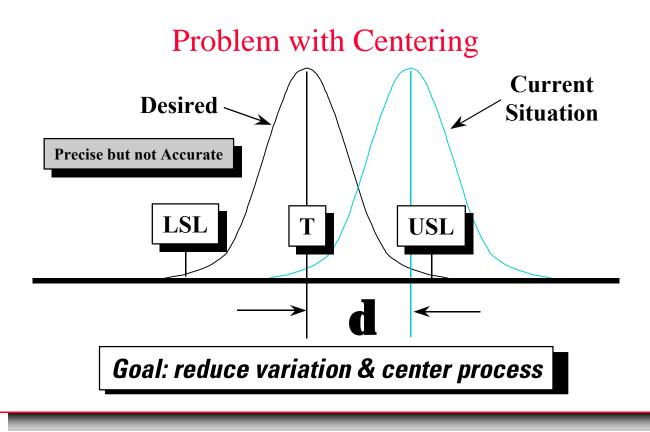


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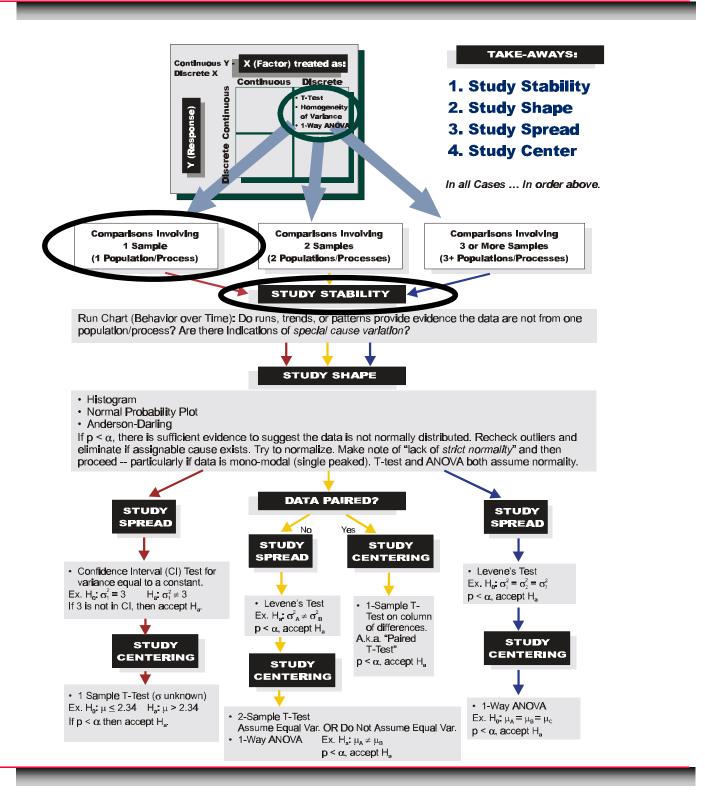
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Identify Variation Sources

Data Analysis





Stability - Minitab Run Chart

Is the first catapult operator on target?

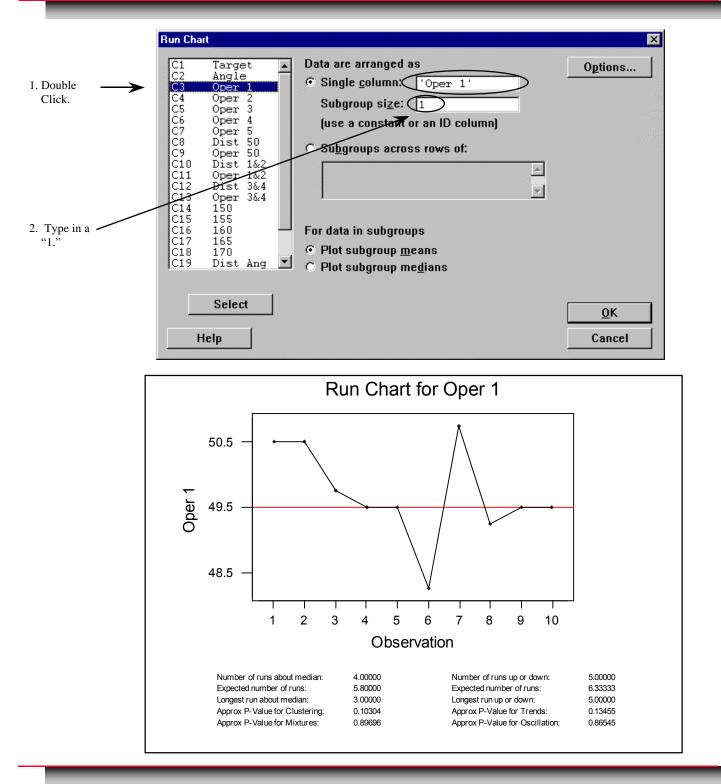
<u>Step 1</u>: Check the stability of the first operator's process. Are there any trends in the data?

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2	50.50	49.00	50.0		50.50	1			
3	49.75	51.50	49.2	<u>G</u> age Run Chart Gage <u>L</u> inearity Study	49.75	1			
4	49.50	50.50	48.7:	Gage R&R Study	49.50	1			
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Draw a run cł	hart with tests fo	r randomness		Symmetry Flot					



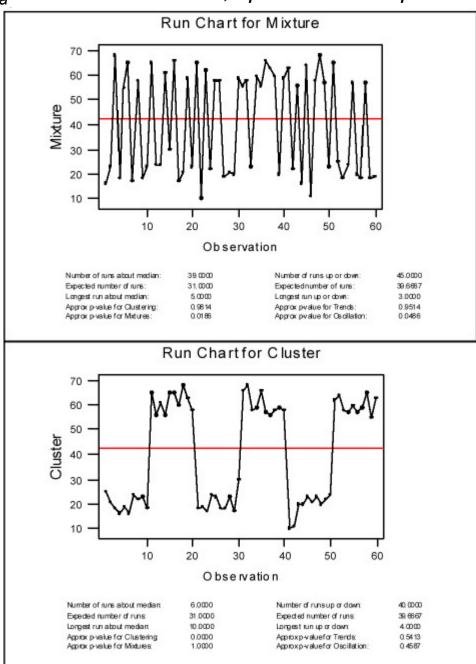
Stability - Minitab Run Chart





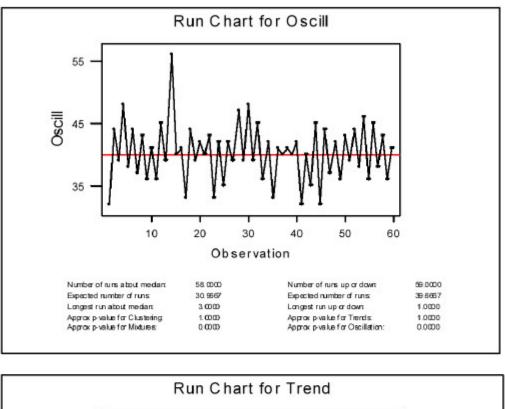
 H_o : Data is random, special causes not present H_a : Data is not random, special causes present

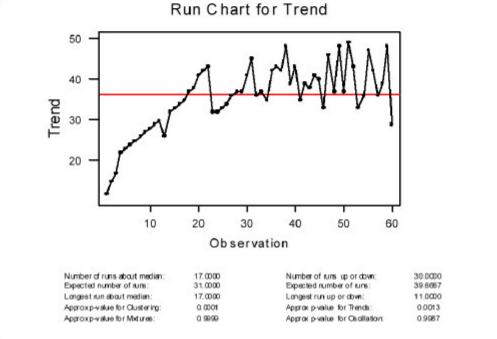
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Studying Stability

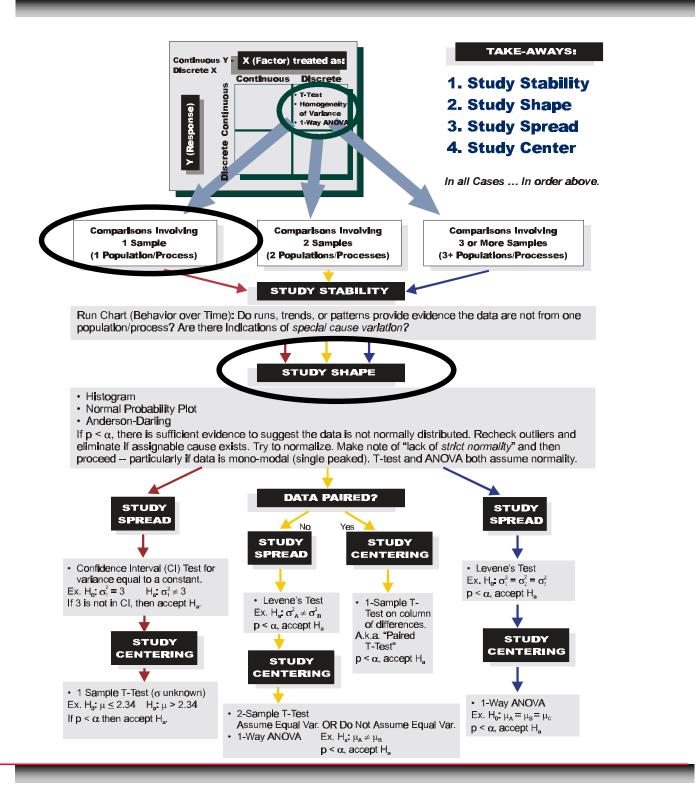




Identify Variation Sources



Data Analysis



Shape - Minitab Descriptive Statistics

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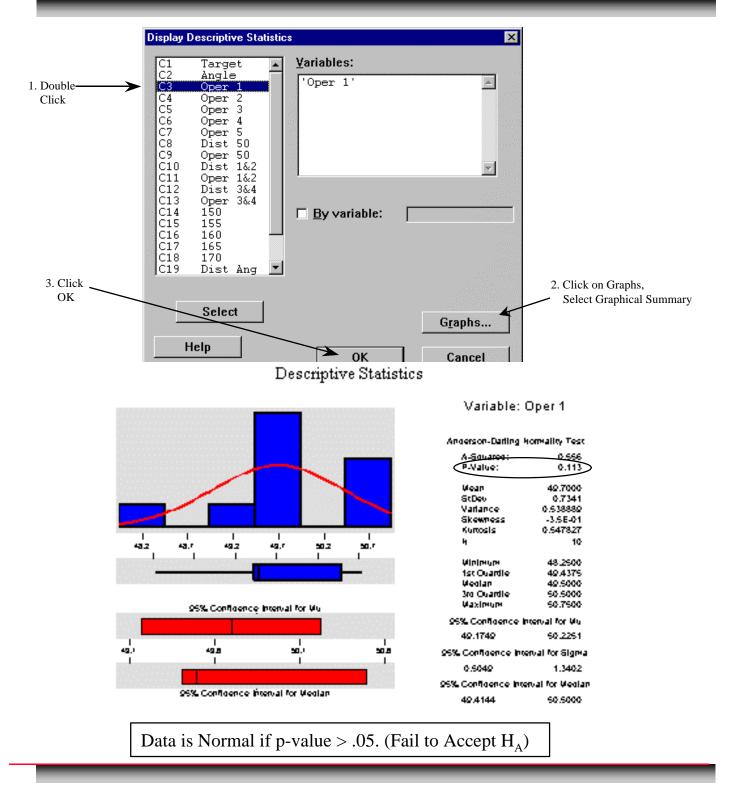
<u>Step 2</u>: Check the shape of the data. Is the data normally distributed?

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4	•	4	9.50	50.50							2000000		
			19.50	47.00		49.00	50.00	48.75	49.50	1			
•	j	4	19.50)			48.75	49.50	1	• • //.		

 H_o : The data is normally distributed H_a : The data is not normally distributed

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What if I don't have normal data?!!





Know how to determine normality

Understand the possible causes of nonnormal data

Understand how to run and interpret results from the following test: Mood's Median Test

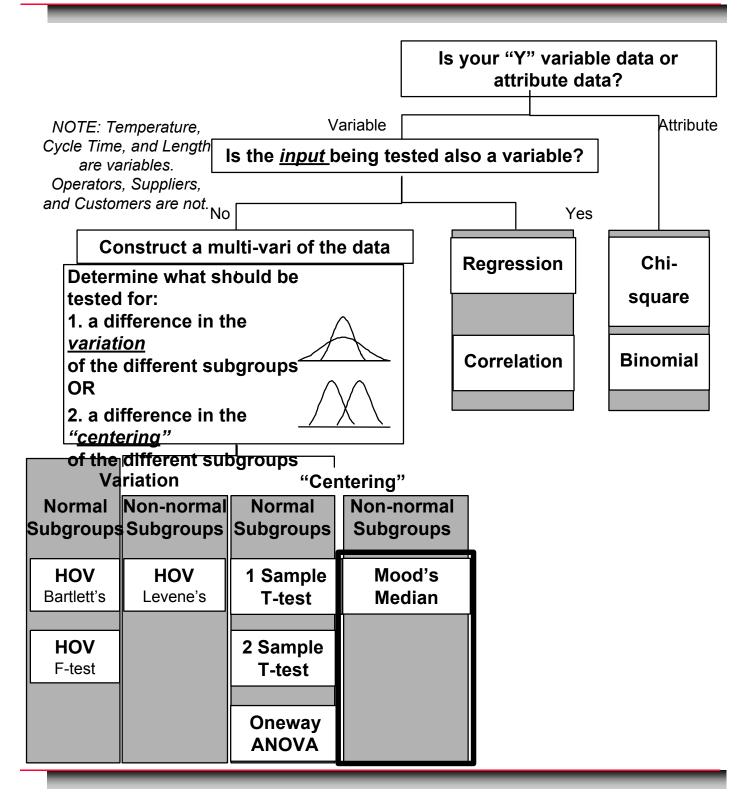




Dealing with Non-normal Data
Mood's Median Test
Homogeneity of Variance



Statistical Test Choices





Hypothesis Tests Summary

Normal Data

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Non-normal Data

Variance Tests

Homogeneity of Variance Levine's- Compares two or more sample variances.

Medians Tests

Mood's Median Test- Another test for two or more medians. More robust to outliers in data.

Correlation-Tests linear relationship between two variables.



Dealing with Non Normal Data

Check and be sure the data is truly non-normal. Nonnormality can eliminate a number of helpful tools from consideration.

- Perform a Normality Test (to verify that it's truly nonnormal)
- Consider whether you have sufficient resolution (How finely divided is the scale of your measurement - should you use minutes instead of hours? Thousandths of an inch instead of sixteenths of an inch?)
- Check data for (typographical) errors. Investigate outliers.
- Be cautious of small sample sizes (i.e. <30). A small sample from a normal population will sometimes test as non-normal - be aware of how many data points you have.
- Attempt to transform the data. Common transforms include:
 - finding the square root of all data points
 - finding the log of all data points
 - finding the square of all data points
- If the data is still non-normal, use the **Non Parametric** tools



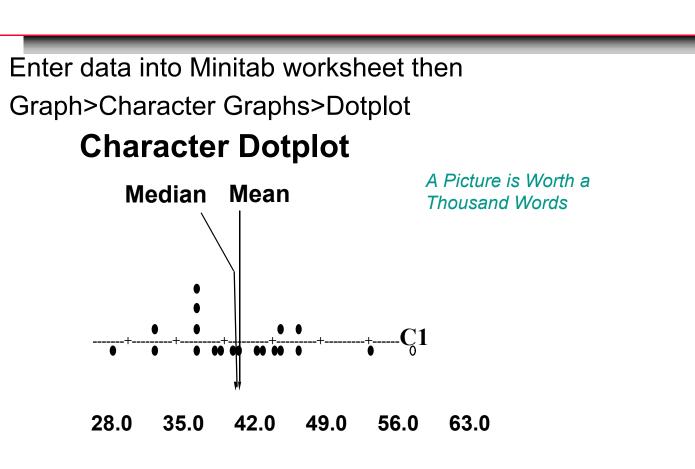
DEFINITIONS

- Mean Arithmetic average of the data. Sum of all the data points divided by the number of data points.
- Median Value of middle data point when the data are sorted or ranked.
- Mode The most often occurring value in the data set.

<u>Example:</u>

Data was collected <u>weekly</u> for the inventory level of a certain type of bearing in a stockroom. What is the mean and median for this set of data?

30, 37, 25, 35, 42, 35, 35, 47, 45, 60, 39, 45, 30, 38, 35, 40, 44, 55, 47, 43



Mean = 40.35 Median = 39.5

The **mean** can be influenced (or leveraged) considerably by outliers because when you calculate a mean, you factor in the actual *values* of outliers.

The **median**, on the other hand, assigns equal weight to all observations regardless of actual outlier values because it is concerned only with the value which has an equal number of observations above and below it.

(If the response of 60 (white dot) were 6000, the mean would change, but the median would not.)

Mood's Median Test

Project #1204-1 - Scrap Requisitions were processed greater than 29 days 30% of the time. One of the Families of Variation was "Business to Business". Is there a difference in the medians between Locomotive, Control, and Propulsion.

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Locomotive

5, 122, 8, 22, 9, 22, 22, 21, 21, 18, 46, 43, 33, 19, 16, 15, 12, 12, 12, 36, 45, 57, 32, 104, 11, 57, 36, 6, 7, 111, 36, 49, 29, 28, 43, 72, 48, 27, 10, 8, 7, 7, 48, 30, 14, 52, 44, 41, 31, 22, 10, 10, 9, 7, 70, 21, 15, 156, 47, 35, 35, 34, 25, 22, 21, 14, 12, 6, 6, 5, 22

Control

20, 18, 9, 37, 8, 30, 15, 26, 26, 26, 26, 26, 14, 36, 28, 13, 22, 126, 119, 222, 119, 119, 119, 119, 119, 83, 10, 14, 33, 32, 21, 13, 5, 55, 15, 8, 22, 22, 22, 22, 21, 21, 15, 15, 22, 8, 13, 42, 14, 13, 12, 12, 8

Propulsion

20, 14, 23, 23, 23, 17, 17, 15, 15, 15, 18, 22, 22, 41, 8, 6, 6, 6, 22, 8, 14, 14.34.14.14. 20, 20, 20, 21, 19, 12, 12, 12

Each data point represents the number of days to process a single Scrap Requisition.

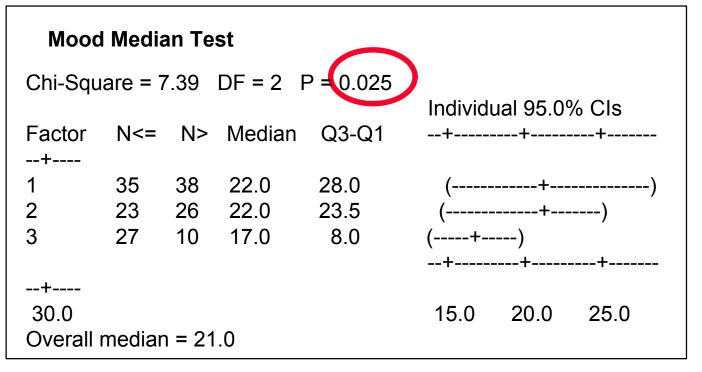


Mood's Median Test

Mood's Median test requires that all the data be in one column with factors (or subscripts) in a second column. If your data is not already stacked, you can stack it using: Manip>Stack/Unstack>Stack.

In Minitab:

- Open File>New Worksheet Copy in data
- Stat>Nonparametrics>Mood's Median Test
- Response: Days Factor: Business



Since p < 0.05 we reject H_o There <u>is</u> a difference between Businesses





Mood's Median Test

This test will show <u>Statistical</u> <u>Significance.</u>

It will not show Practical Significance.

It is recommended to do a Multi-vari to see the <u>Practical Significance.</u>



• An <u>Anderson-Darling Normality Test</u> is used to determine if your data is normal.

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• A <u>Mood's Median Test</u> is used to test <u>two or more</u> population medians. Test is robust to outliers or errors in data. (shows statistical significance)



- One of the advantages of nonparametric tests is that they assume no knowledge about the underlying distributions. They often use an analysis of the ordered ranks of the data
- A disadvantage of nonparametric tests is that they are less powerful (it takes more data to find the same size difference) than the equivalent ttests and ANOVA tests
- The **Mood's Median Test** is a nonparametric test which is very similar to the One-Way ANOVA test





When do I Transform my Data?

Transformation

Typically, it is not recommended that you transform your data for several reasons:

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- 1. You lose touch with the physical process.
- It is a very rare instance when this is appropriate and it tends to be more of an art than a science.

When Not To Use A Transformation

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Situation	How to Check for the Situation	What To Do Instead
 1. Data has cycles, shifts or trends (Data Is Not Stable) 	Plot the data in time order using a run chart or control chart.	 Understand the nature of the special causes. Use scatterplots and segmentation analysis to look for factors that correlate with or explain the shifting. Test only stable segments for normality.
2. Data is different for different groups	Histogram will sometimes show multiple humps (bimodal or multimodal.) Normal probability plot will show multiple sloped line segments attached with flat line segments. $\int_{0}^{2} \int_{0}^{2} \int_{0}^$	 Segment or Stratify the data. Look for differences between groups using stratified histograms and ANOVA. Test for normality only within groups.

When Not To Use A Transformation

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Method	How to Check for the Situation	What To Do Instead
3. Data is symmetric	Normal probability plot is straight except for points at either end are "inside" the line.	Generally OK to ignore this departure from permulity.
3A. With less in the tails than the normal distribution	Normal Probability Plot for Usage	departure from normality.
3B. With more in the tails than the Normal distribution	Normal probability plot is straight except for points at either end are "outside" the line. Normal Probability Plot for Rework Volume Tugo B ML Estimates Meart0.1717 StDevt1.540 Data	 May have special causes (outliers) in the data. See Situation 1.
4. Data is rounded to the nearest integer	Normal probability plot has vertical bars. Test of normality will fail. Normal Probability Plot For Days To Close	As long as there are 5 or more distinct values and the data are symmetric, treat as normal.

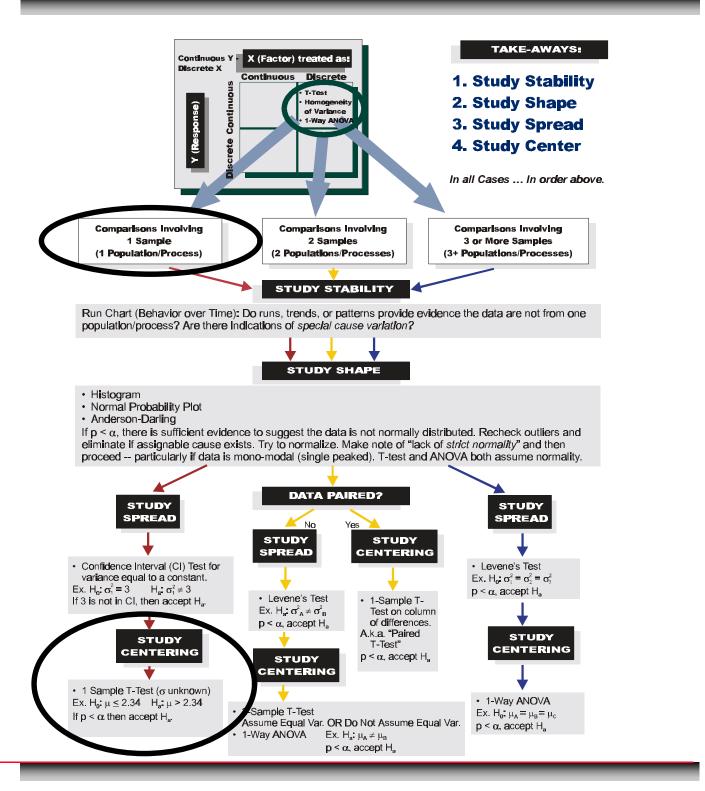
When To Use A Transformation

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There are specific methods to use in transforming data.

If you think that you need this for your data, see your MBB.

Data Analysis





Example 1a, Hand Calculation

Targe	et = .96960
$\overline{X} = .96953$	s = .00017
n = 30	n-1 = dof = 29
$\alpha = .05$	$\alpha/2 = .025$
$t_{\alpha/2, n-1} = t_{.025, 29} = 2.045$	5 (from t Distribution table)

Equation for the confidence interval about the sample mean:

$$\overline{x} - t_{\alpha/2, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \overline{x} + t_{\alpha/2, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$.96953 - 2.045 * .00017 < \mu < .96953 + 2.045 * .00017 \sqrt{30}$$

$$.96946 < \mu < .96959$$

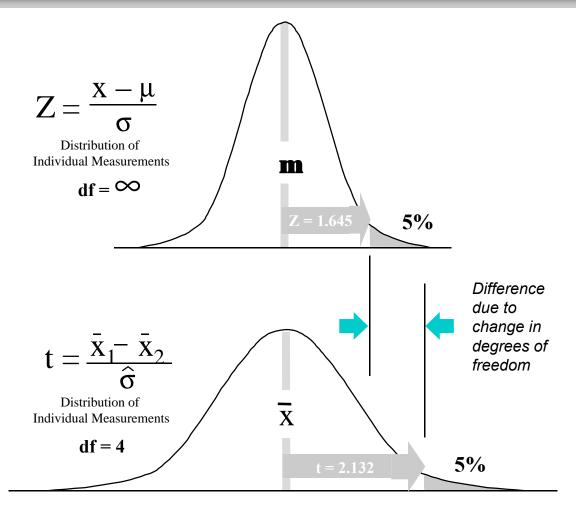
Conclusion: Because the target is not in the acceptance region for H_o , we conclude the process is off target. Reject H_o .

t Distribution

a 1 - a	.400 .600	.300 .700	.200 .800	.100 .900	.050 .950	.025 .975	.010 .990	.005 .995
n - 1 1	0.325	0.727	1.376	3.078	6.314	12.706	31.821	63.657
2	0.289	0.617	1.061	1.886	2.920	4.303	6.965	9.925
3	0.277	0.584	0.978	1.638	2.353	3.182	4.541	5.841
4	0.271	0.569	0.941	1.533	2.132	2.776	3.747	4.604
5	0.267	0.559	0.920	1.476	2.015	2.571	3.365	4.032
6	0.265	0.553	0.906	1.440	1.943	2.447	3.143	3.707
7	0.263	0.549	0.896	1.415	1.895	2.365	2.998	3.499
8	0.262	0.546	0.889	1.397	1.860	2.306	2.896	3.355
9	0.261	0.543	0.883	1.383	1.833	2.262	2.821	3.250
10	0.260	0.542	0.879	1.372	1.812	2.228	2.764	3.169
11	0.260	0.540	0.876	1.363	1.796	2.201	2.718	3.106
12	0.259	0.539	0.873	1.356	1.782	2.179	2.681	3.055
13	0.259	0.538	0.870	1.350	1.771	2.160	2.650	3.012
14	0.258	0.537	0.868	1.345	1.761	2.145	2.624	2.977
15	0.258	0.536	0.866	1.341	1.753	2.131	2.602	2.947
16	0.258	0.535	0.865	1.337	1.746	2.120	2.583	2.921
17	0.257	0.534	0.863	1.333	1.740	2.110	2.567	2.898
18	0.257	0.534	0.862	1.330	1.734	2.101	2.552	2.878
19	0.257	0.533	0.861	1.328	1.729	2.093	2.539	2.861
20	0.257	0.533	0.860	1.325	1.725	2.086	2.528	2.845
21	0.257	0.532	0.859	1.323	1.721	2.080	2.518	2.831
22	0.256	0.532	0.858	1.321	1.717	2.074	2.508	2.819
23	0.256	0.532	0.858	1.319	1.714	2.069	2.500	2.807
24	0.256	0.531	0.857	1.318	1.711	2.064	2.492	2.797
25	0.256	0.531	0.856	1.316	1.708	2.060	2.485	2.787
26	0.256	0.531	0.856	1.315	1.706	2.056	2.479	2.779
27	0.256	0.531	0.855	1.314	1.703	2.052	2.473	2.771
28	0.256	0.530	0.855	1.313	1.701	2.048	2.467	2.763
29	0.256	0.530	0.854	1.311	1.699	2.045	2.462	2.756
30	0.256	0.530	0.854	1.310	1.697	2.042	2.457	2.750
40	0.255	0.529	0.851	1.303	1.684	2.021	2.423	2.704
60	0.254	0.527	0.848	1.296	1.671	2.000	2.390	2.660
120	0.254	0.526	0.845	1.289	1.658	1.980	2.358	2.617
∞	0.253	0.524	0.842	1.282	1.645	1.960	2.326	2.576

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Nature of the t Distribution



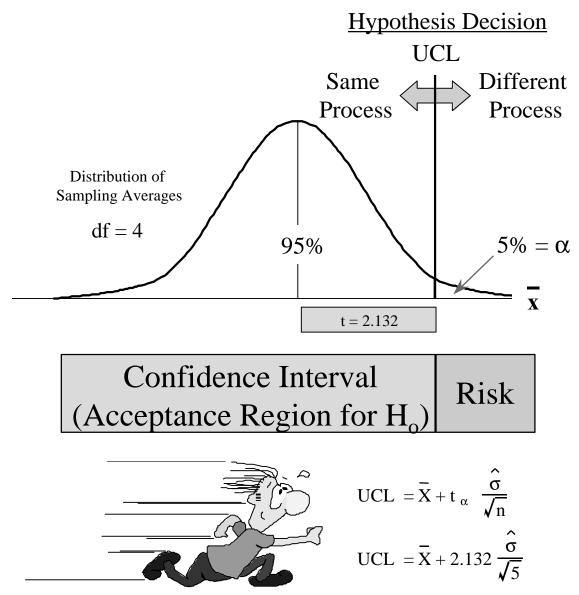
(H)

If the population distribution is unknown, we may estimate it with a random sample. When the sample size is infinite, there is no uncertainty of estimation; hence, we apply the normal (Z) distribution to discover a given probability of chance occurrence. However, as the sample size declines, our uncertainty increases; consequently, we must expand the range of prediction for the same probability. In other words, we must correct Z for the loss in degrees of freedom.

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Identify Variation Sources

One-Sided Use of the t Distribution



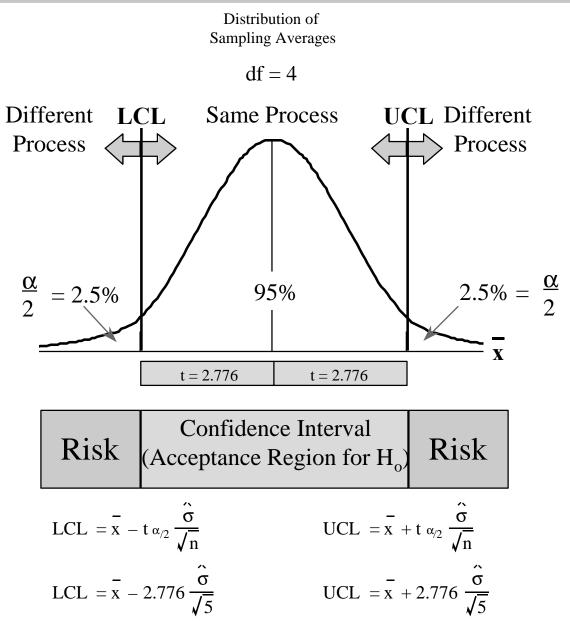
When H_0 is true, there is 95% certainty that the true population mean will be less than the UCL (Upper Confidence Limit). If we observe a sampling average greater than UCL, we may conclude that such an event could only occur 5 out of 100 by random chance (sampling variations).

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Identify Variation Sources

Two-Sided Use of the t Distribution

(H)



There is 95% certainty that the true population mean will be contained within the given confidence interval. If we observe a sampling average greater than UCL or less than LCL, we may conclude that such an event could only occur 5 out of 100 by random chance (sampling variations).

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Identify Variation Sources

Example 2, Minitab Calculation Confidence Interval of Mean

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	↓ 1		C3 per 1 50.50	C4 Oper 2 50.5 49.0	2	C5 Oper 3 46.50	C6 Oper 4 49.00	C7 Oper 5 50.00	Dist 50 50.50	C9 Oper 50 1	
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	↓ 1 2 3		C3 ber 1 50.50 50.50 49.75	C4 Oper 2 50.5 49.0 51.5 50.5	2 2 50 50 50 50 50	C5 Oper 3 46.50 50.00 49.25	C6 Oper 4 49.00 50.25 50.50	C7 Oper 5 50.00 49.75 49.75	Dist 50 50.50 50.50 49.75	C9 Oper 50 1 1 1	
	↓ 1 2 3 4 5		C3 50.50 50.50 49.75 49.50	C4 Oper 2 50.5 49.0 51.5 50.5	2 20 50 50 50 50	C5 Oper 3 46.50 50.00 49.25 48.75 49.00	C6 Oper 4 49.00 50.25 50.50 49.75 50.00	C7 Oper 5 50.00 49.75 49.75 50.00	Dist 50 50.50 50.50 49.75 49.50	C9 Oper 50 1 1 1 1 1	

Confidence Interval of Mean - Minitab Input and Output

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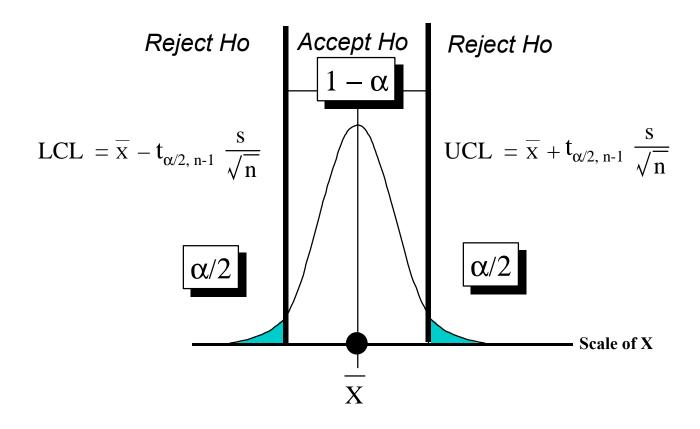
C1 Target C2 Angle C3 Oper 1 C4 Oper 2 C5 Oper 3 C6 Oper 4 C7 Oper 5 C8 Dist 50 C9 Oper 50 C10 Dist 1&2 C11 Oper 1&2	▲ <u>Variables:</u> ^{'Oper 1'} © <u>C</u> onfidence int	terval	×
C9 Oper 50 C10 Dist 1&2 C11 Oper 1&2		terval	
C12 Dist 3&4 C13 Oper 3&4 C14 150 C15 155		0.0	
C16 160 C17 165			G <u>r</u> aphs
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	C14 150 C15 155 C16 160 C17 165 Select	C14 150 C15 155 C16 160 C17 165 ▼ <u>A</u> lternative: [Select	C14 150 C15 155 C16 160 C17 165

Since the Confidence Interval contains the target, 50 inches, we do not have enough evidence to show that the process mean is off center. Thus we accept H_o

4

Single Sample Test for a Mean Equaling a Target (Two-Sided)

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The p-Value? (Review)

- Alpha is the maximum acceptable probability of being wrong if the alternative hypothesis is selected.
- The p-value is the probability that you will be wrong if the alternative hypothesis is selected. This is a Type I error.
- Unless there is an exception based on engineering judgment, we will set an acceptance level of a Type I error at a = 0.05.
- Thus, any p-value less than 0.05 means we reject the null hypothesis.

 $p < \alpha$: Reject H_o

 $p > \alpha$: Accept H_o

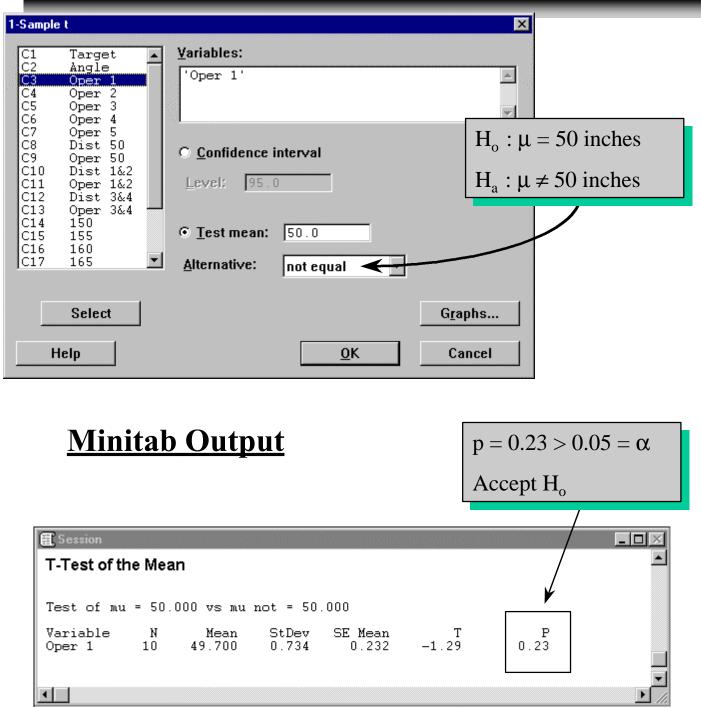
Example 2b, Minitab Calculation Test of Mean (p-Value)

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3	49.75	5 51.50	49.25	50.50	49.75	49.75	1	
4	49.50	0 50.50	48.75	49.75	50.00	49.50	1	
5	49.50	47.00	49.00	50.00	48.75	49.50	1	► ► //
Perform a one	sample t-test	and compute a cor	nfidence interval					5

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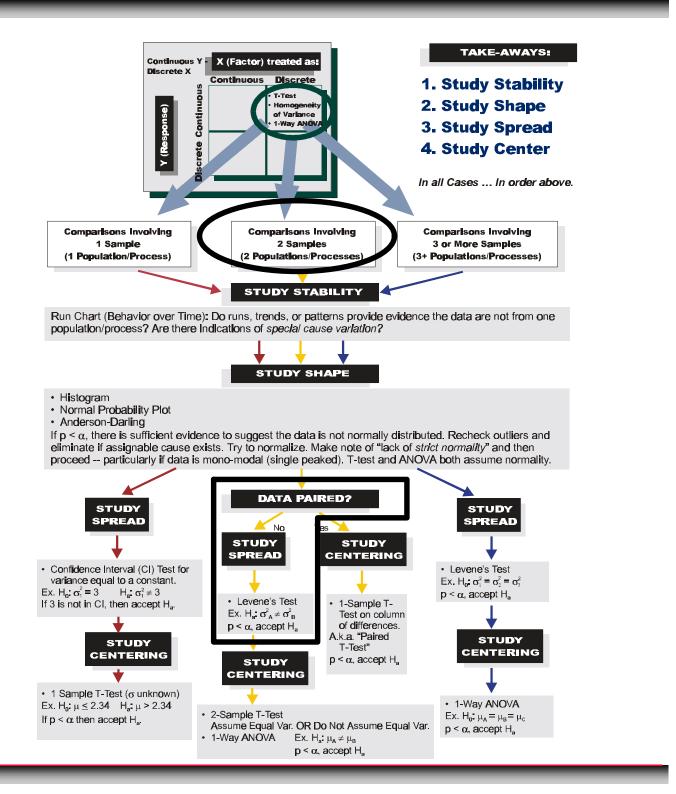
Exercise 1 Single Sample Test for a Mean Two-Sided

- Use your team's catapult data. Evaluate each operator.
- If the target is 50 inches, is the process off center?
- State your hypotheses first.

$p < \alpha$: Reject H_o

$p > \alpha$: Accept H_o

Data Analysis



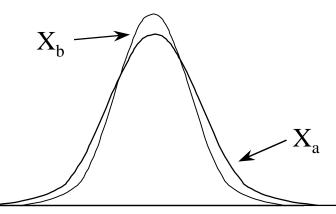


Test on Variances

Many times we want to know if we have succeeded in reducing the variation of a process or we might want to know if a change in a variable, X, changes the variation in the output, Y.

Knowing if the variances of two (or more) samples are different is also a prerequisite to the test on means.

Are these Variances Different?



The hypothesis test for comparing variances is the Homogeneity of Variance Test.

Homogeneity of Variance Test

You want to compare the variability of operator 1 and 2. You have established that each process is stable and normally distributed. Perform the Homogeneity of Variance Test on Operator 1 and 2.

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2	50.50	49.00	46.50	49.00 50.25	50.00 49.75	50.50 50.50	1	
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	50.50	49.00	50.00	50.25	49.75	50.50	1 1 1 1	
3	50.50 49.75	49.00 51.50	50.00 49.25	50.25 50.50	49.75 49.75	50.50 49.75	1 1 1 1	
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MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw

Test on Variances, Example - Input

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Homogeneity of Variance T	est	×
C1 Target C2 Ångle C3 Oper 1 C4 Oper 2 C5 Oper 3 C6 Oper 4 C7 Oper 5 C8 Dist 50 C9 Oper 50 C10 Dist 1&2 C11 Oper 1&2 C12 Dist 3&4 C13 Oper 3&4 C14 150 C15 155 C16 160 C17 165 C18 170	Response: 'Dist 1&2' Factors: 'Oper 1&2' Confidence level: 95.0 Title:	
C19 Dist Ang 🔽 Select Help	<u>O</u> K	<u>S</u> torage Cancel

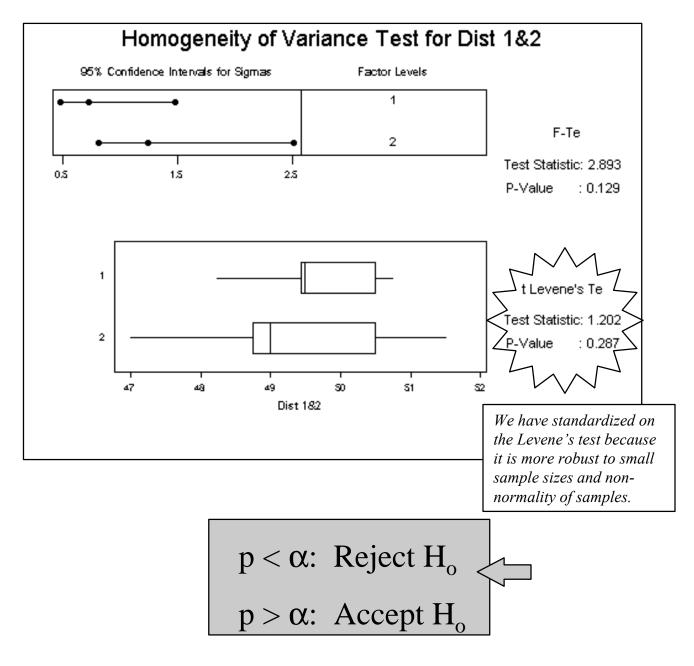
H₀:
$$\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$$
 $\alpha = .05$
H_a: $\sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$



Test on Variances, Example - Output

 $\mathbf{H}_0: \ \mathbf{\sigma}_1^2 = \mathbf{\sigma}_2^2$

 $\alpha = .05$

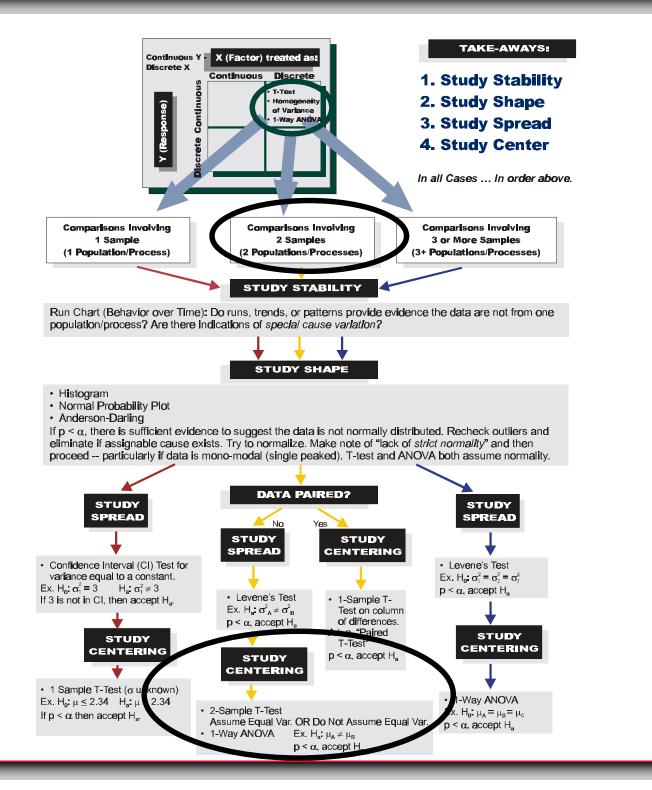




Exercise 2: Test on Variances

- Use your team's catapult data.
- Run a test to see if the variances could be the same for operator 1 and operator 2.
- To run this test, you need to stack the distances of operators 1 and 2. (Do not forget the subscripts.)
- Define your hypotheses first.



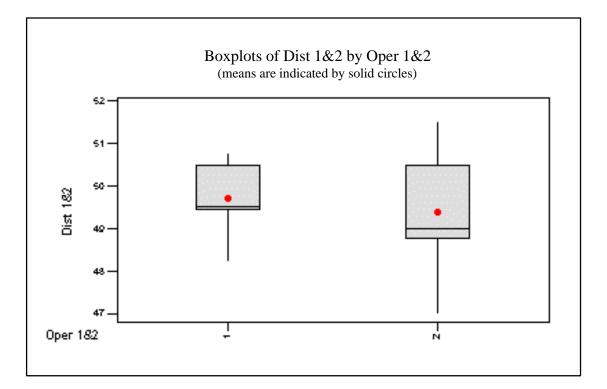


(H)

Two-Sample t-Test: Testing for Equal Means Two-Sided

Do we have enough evidence to say that the performance of the two operators is different?

96)



$$H_o: \mu_1 = \mu_2$$
Null hypothesis $H_a: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ Alternative hypothesis -
what you wish to prove.

Two-Sample t-Test in Minitab

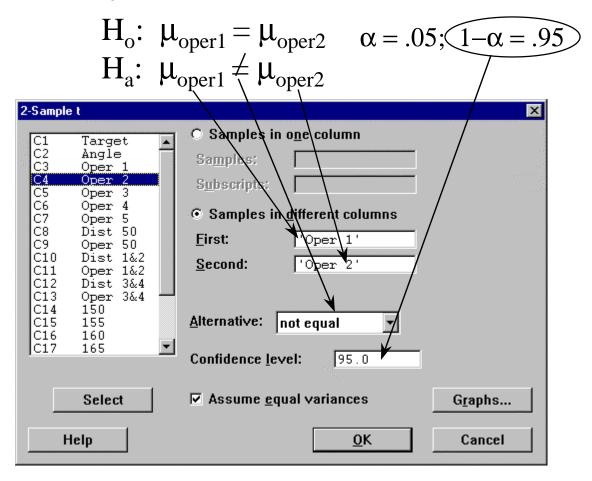
MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw

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		<u>M</u> ultivariate	+	1 Proportion		+		
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nib /		<u>T</u> ables		Correlation				
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Catapul	t.mtw ***	<u>E</u> DA	· _	– Co <u>v</u> ariance	 C7		 	
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	C3 Oper 1	EDA Power and Sar C4 Oper 2 50.50	mple Size	Covariance Normality Test C6 Oper 4	C7 Oper 5	Dist 50	C9	
↓ 1	C3 Oper 1 50.50	EDA Power and Sar C4 Oper 2 50.50 49.00	mple Size C5 Oper 3 46.50	Covariance Normality Test C6 Oper 4 49.00	C7 Oper 5 50.00	Dist 50 50.50	C9	
↓ 1 2	C3 Oper 1 50.50 50.50	EDA Power and Sar C4 Oper 2 50.50 49.00 51.50	mple Size C5 Oper 3 46.50 50.00	Covariance <u>N</u> ormality Test C6 Oper 4 49.00 50.25	C7 Oper 5 50.00 49.75	Dist 50 50.50 50.50	C9	
↓ 1 2 3	C3 Oper 1 50.50 50.50 49.75 49.50	EDA Power and Sar C4 Oper 2 50.50 49.00 51.50 50.50	C5 Oper 3 46.50 50.00 49.25 48.75	Covariance Normality Test C6 Oper 4 49.00 50.25 50.50 49.75	C7 Oper 5 50.00 49.75 49.75 50.00	Dist 50 50.50 50.50 49.75 49.50	C9	
↓ 1 2 3 4	C3 Oper 1 50.50 50.50 49.75	EDA Power and Sar C4 Oper 2 50.50 49.00 51.50 50.50	C5 Oper 3 46.50 50.00 49.25	Covariance Normality Test C6 Oper 4 49.00 50.25 50.50	C7 Oper 5 50.00 49.75 49.75	Dist 50 50.50 50.50 49.75	C9	

Standardization of Hypothesis Statements

The hypothesis you are trying to show should be stated in H_a .

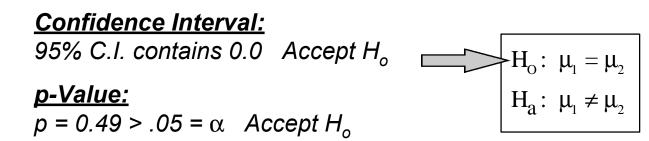


This is how Minitab needs the input.



Minitab Output

E Session	1							
Two Sa	mple	T-Test and	Confiden	e Interval:				<u> </u>
Two sam	ple T	for Oper 1	. vs Oper	2				
	N	Mean	StDev	SE Mean				
Oper 1		49.700						
Oper 2	10	49.38	1.25	0.39				
95% CI	for m	u Oper 1 -	mu Oper 2	: (-0.64,	1.29)			
T-Test	mu Op	er 1 = mu 0	per 2 (vs	not =): T	= 0.71	P = 0.49	DF = 18	
Both us	e Poo	led StDev =	• 1.02					
•								▼ //



Cannot conclude the operators are different.

Both tests result in the same conclusion!





- Using your team's data, conduct a twosample t-test on the means for Operator 1 and 2. Can you assume equal variances?
- Are the means for the two operators different?
- State your hypotheses first.



Two Sample t-Test for One Mean Greater Than the Other (One-Sided)

For many problems, we want to know if the change we made caused an improvement.

For the catapult data, does the operator with the longest average distance statistically launch the projectile farther than the operator with the shortest average distance?

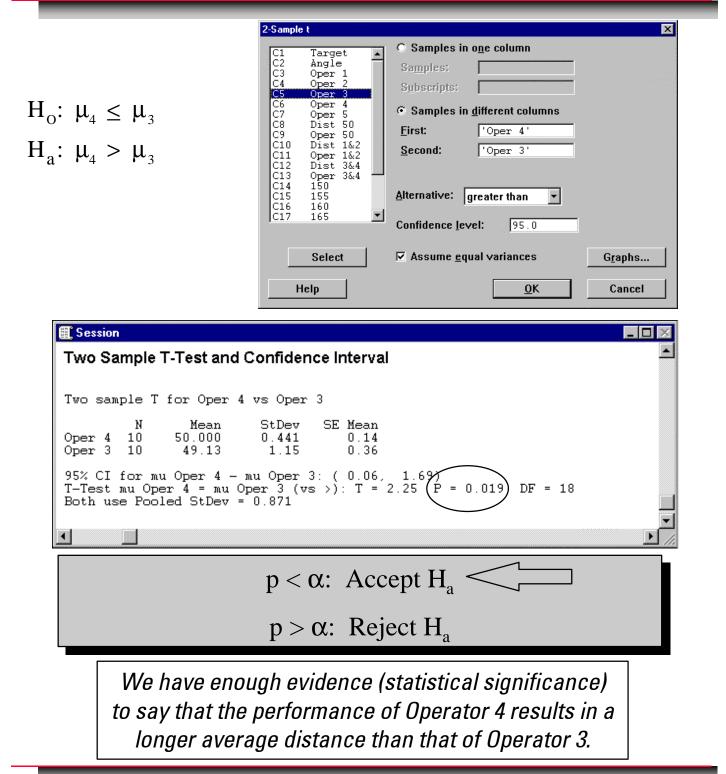
MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw

$H_{o}: \mu_{L} \leq \mu_{S}$	$\alpha = .05$
$H_a: \mu_L > \mu_S$	

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1	50.50	50.50	46.50	49.00	50.00	50.50	1	
2	50.50	49.00	50.00	50.25	49.75	50.50	1	
3	49.75	51.50	49.25	50.50	49.75	49.75	1	
4	49.50	50.50	48.75	49.75	50.00	49.50	1	
5	49.50	47 በበ	49 00	50.00	48 75	49.50	1	• //
Perform a two-	sample t-test an	d compute a con	fidence interval	for the difference	e in means			



Two Sample t-Test -Minitab Input and Output





Using your team's catapult data, conduct a two-sample t-test on the means for your longest and shortest average distance operators. Is your data normally distributed for both samples? Can you assume equal variances?

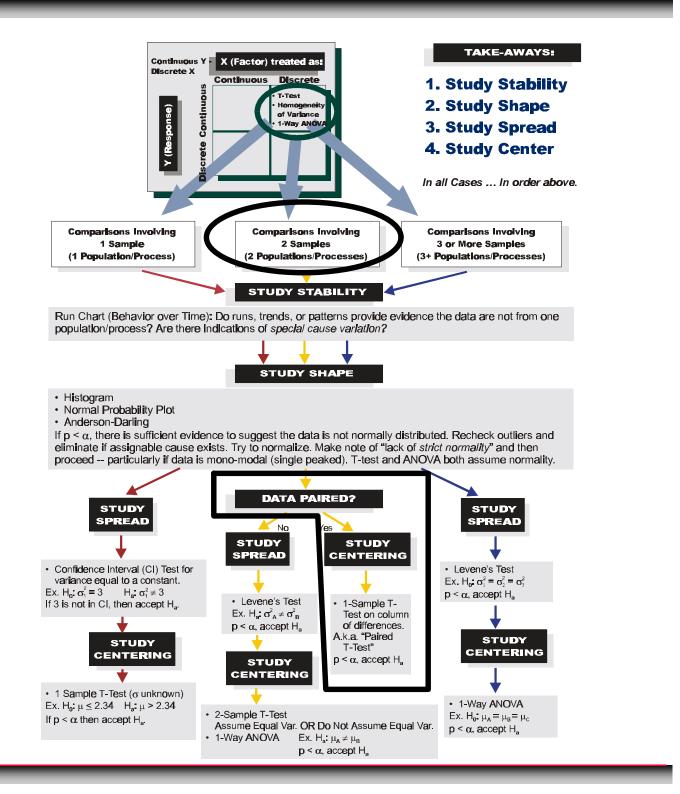
GE)

State your hypotheses first.

 $p < \alpha$: Reject H_o

 $p > \alpha$: Accept H_o

Data Analysis





Y = Tensile Strength

X = Baking Temp.

Not Paired (Independent)

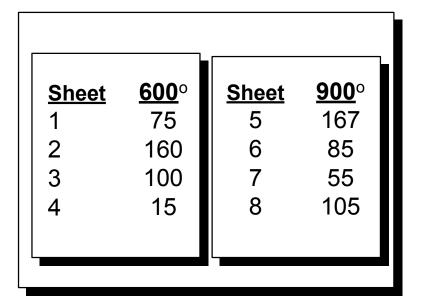
- 8 Sheets
- Randomly divided into 2 piles of 4



Paired

96)

Each cut into 2 halves



Version 4 3/01

73	77
	77
161	175
102	135
14	25
	102

Better, since unwanted source of variation (sheet to sheet) is removed.



Paired Sample

Sometimes it is necessary to test for an effect on a population made up of non-identical specimens. For example, suppose a sparkplug manufacturer has developed a new sparkplug design and wishes to see if the new design causes a statistically significant difference in performance in several different engine designs.

A variety of automobiles are selected from among those owned by the manufacturer's employees. Unused spark plugs of the "old" design are installed in each engine, and the power of each engine is measured on a chassis dynamometer. Then unused spark plugs of the "new" design are installed and the dynamometer test is repeated.

The results are as follows:

	<u>Horsepowe</u>	<u>r at 4000 rpm</u>	
	"Old" Plug	"New" Plug	Horsepower
<u>Automobile</u>	<u>Design</u>	<u>Design</u>	<u>Difference, d_i</u>
Acura Integra (4 cylinder)	75	81	6
Chrysler Minivan (8 cylinder)	159	166	7
Ford F-150 Pickup (6 cylinder)	115	116	1
Pontiac Bonneville (8 cylinder)	191	201	10
Volvo 850 (5 cylinder)	123	119	-4
VW Passat (4 cylinder)	90	88	-2

Paired Sample t-Test (cont.)

Clearly a two-sample t-test cannot be used to compare the difference between the "old" and "new" sample means directly, because the differences among engines is much greater than the performance change that may be due to sparkplug design.

(H)

The variation among engines can be approximately eliminated by analyzing the <u>difference</u> in performance for each engine. Create a new statistic d_i = Horsepower_{new} -Horsepower_{old} for each automobile. Now a <u>one-sample</u> ttest can be performed to test the alternative hypothesis that the plug design, on average, changes the horsepower.

 H_o : Plug design does not make a difference H_a : Plug design makes a difference

n

$$\overline{D} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{d_i}{n}$$

$$s_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (d_i - \overline{D})^2}{n-1}}$$
Acceptance Region: $\overline{D} - t_{\alpha/2, n-1} \frac{s_d}{\sqrt{n}} < T < \overline{D} + t_{\alpha/2, n-1}$

Hand Calculation

In the example used to develop the concept of the paired-sample test on the previous pages, did the new sparkplug design significantly affect engine performance at the 0.05 level of significance?

(¥E)

 H_o : Plug design does not make a difference H_a : Plug design makes a difference

$$\overline{D} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{d_i}{n} = 3.00$$

$$\alpha = 0.05$$

$$t_{\alpha/2, n-1} = 2.57$$

$$s_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (d_i - \overline{D})^2}{n-1}} = 5.51$$

Acceptance region: -2.79 < T < 8.79

If there was no difference between the old and new plugs, you would expect there to be no difference between the two populations.

Since the value, 0, falls within the acceptance region, we conclude that the new spark plugs do not result in a significant difference in engine performance.

Minitab Calculation Paired T-test

MINITAB FILE: (Create Your Own)

96)

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Ļ	Car	HP Old	HP New	HP Diff				
3	Ford P/U	115	116	1				
4	Pontiac	191	201	10				
5	Volvo	123	119	-4				
6	W	90	88	-2				
7								
								<u> </u>

 H_o : Plug design does not make a difference H_a : Plug design makes a difference

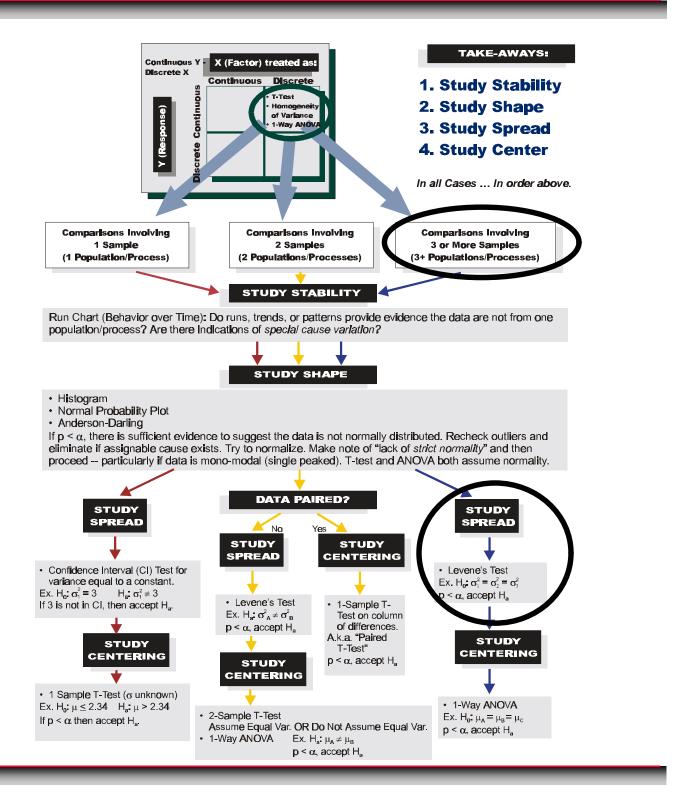
Identify Variation Sources

Minitab Input & Output

1-S	ample t					×
	C2 HP Old C3 HP New C4 HP Diff		Diff' nfidence inter	val		×
	Select Help		st mean: 0. native: no	0 t equal ▼ <u>O</u> K	<u>Gr</u> apt Can	
Variable HP Diff	N 6	Mean 3.00	StDev 5.51	SE Mean 2.25	T 1.33	P-Value 0.24
		p < 0	a: Reje	ct H _o		a = 0.05
		$p > \alpha$: Acce	pt H _o		

%

Data Analysis



Test on Variances Example

You want to compare the performance of all the operators. You have established that each process is stable and normally distributed. Before you compare their means you must determine if their variances are equal.

96)

H_o:
$$\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2 \dots = \sigma_5^2$$
 $\alpha = .05$
H_a: At least one σ^2 is different



MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw

96)

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		<u>T</u> ables Nacionalia		Homogeneity of	of Variance			
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	3	C4	ය	C6	C7	C8	C9	
Ļ	Oper 1	Oper 2	Oper 3	Oper 4	Oper 5	Dist 50	Oper 50	
1	50.50	50.50	46.50	49.00	50.00	50.50	1	
2	50.50	49.00	50.00	50.25	49.75	50.50	1	
3	49.75	51.50	49.25	50.50	49.75	49.75	1	
4	49.50	50.50	48.75	49.75	50.00	49.50	1	
5	49.50	47.00	49.00	50.00	48.75	49.50	1	
Perform Bartlet	tt's and Levene'	s tests for homog	eneity of variand	ce				

Variances, Minitab Input

Homogeneity of Variance T	est 🗙
C1 Target C2 Angle C3 Oper 1 C4 Oper 2 C5 Oper 3 C6 Oper 4 C7 Oper 5 C8 Dist 50 C9 Oper 50 C10 Dist 1&2 C11 Oper 1&2 C12 Dist 3&4 C13 Oper 3&4 C14 150 C15 155 C16 160 C17 165 C18 170 C19 Dist Ang	Response: 'Dist 50' Factors: 'Oper 50' Confidence level: 95.0 Title:
Select	<u>S</u> torage
Help	<u>O</u> K Cancel

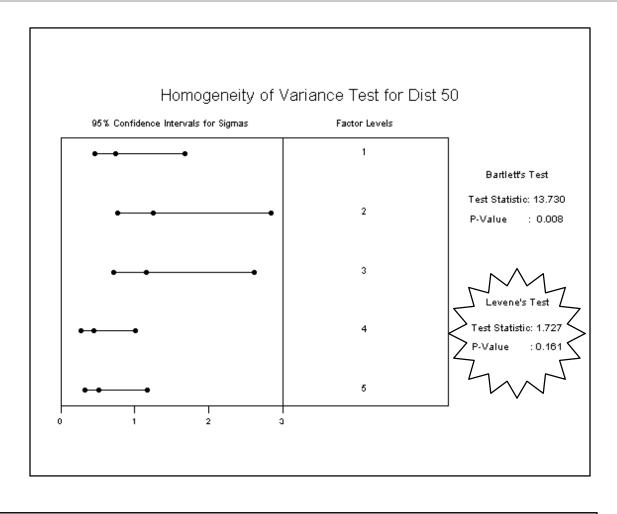
96)

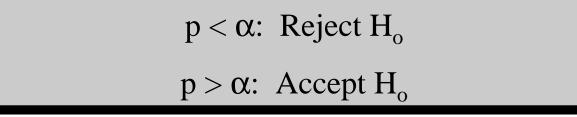
 H_o : All variances s_i^2 , i = 1, 2, ..., 5are the same.

H_a : At least one variance, s_i^2 , is different from the rest of the group.



Variances, Minitab Output

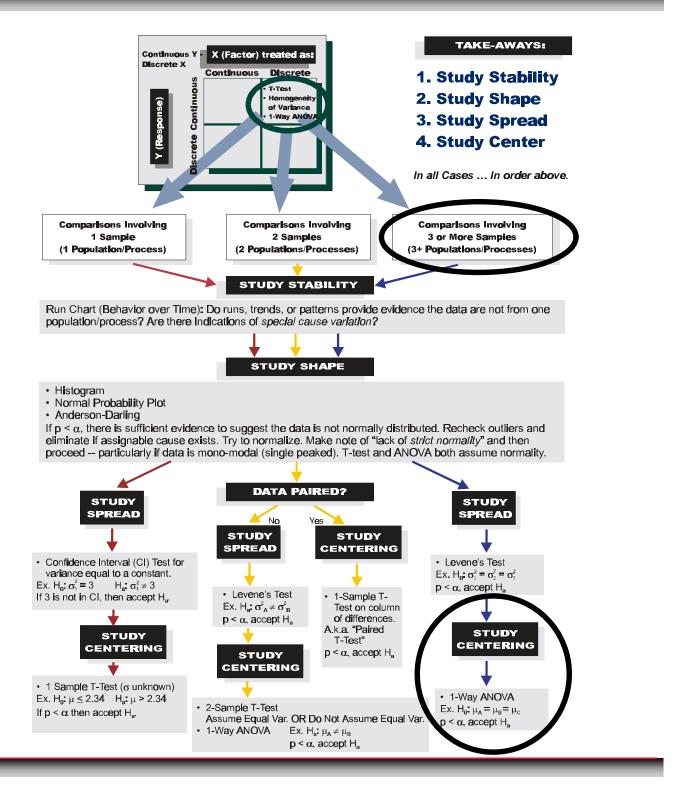




We do not have enough evidence to accept that any one operator's variance is significantly different from the others.

Identify Variation Sources

Data Analysis



H)



One-Way Analysis-of-Variance (ANOVA)

H_o: $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4$ H_a: At least one μ different from the others

When comparing two or more means, we could use a ttest and compare all possible pairs. Suppose we wanted to compare four means. This would require six different t-tests. For each test we would have a a (5%) chance of a Type I error and would not know the overall risk.

The one-Way ANOVA enables us to control the overall risk of a Type I error and leads to a single test statistic for comparing all the means.

ANOVA is a Test to Compare <u>Averages</u>

(The name is misleading!)

One-way analysis-of-variance, or one-way ANOVA as it is often referred to, is a statistical method used to test the relationship between a given dependent variable and a single independent variable classified into two or more groups. To be specific, this procedure will ascertain whether or not the response means associated with the groups are drawn from the same population.

(H)

The analysis involves arithmetically decomposing the total observed variation into two components. One component represents the response variation strictly attributable to the independent variable, while the other represents residual variation, or background noise as it is sometimes called.

With these estimates of variability, the one-way procedure evaluates the probability of equal component variances. If the probability exceeds a given threshold value, the alternative hypothesis of statistically significant difference (in component variances) would be accepted. Under this condition, it would be concluded that the observed variation in group means did not result from chance sampling variations.

One-Way ANOVA Example

Is there any indication that the averages of the five catapult operators are different? Which operators are different?

96)

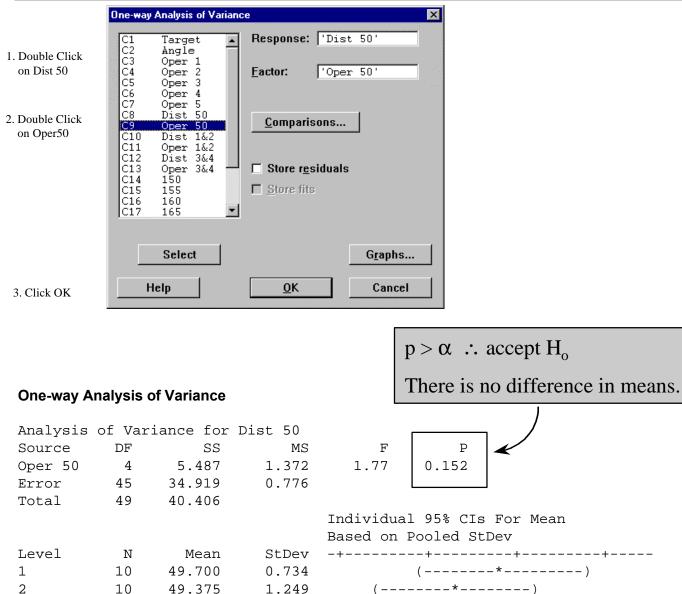
*H*_o: $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4 = \mu_5$ *H*_a: at least one μ different from the others

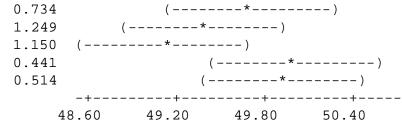
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		Reliability/Surv	rival 🕨	Balanced ANC	OVA			
Test Sta	atistic:	<u>M</u> ultivariate	•	<u>G</u> eneral Linea	r Model			
P-Value	:	Time <u>S</u> eries	+	Eully Nested A	NOVA			
MTB >		<u>T</u> ables	•	Homogeneity	of Variance			
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Catapult				Int <u>e</u> ractions Pl	lot	C22 150&170		
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Ļ	C17 165		C19 Dist Ang	Int <u>e</u> ractions Pl C20 C Angle	ot C21 D150&170	150&170		
 1	C17 165 53.00	C18 170 62.25	C19 Dist Ang 26.00	C20 C Angle	ot C21 D150&170 26.00	150&170 1		
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↓ 1 2 3	C17 165 53.00 52.50 53.00	C18 170 62.25 62.50 62.00	C19 Dist Ang 26.00 26.00 26.75	C Angle C Angle 150 150	ot C21 D150&170 26.00 26.00 26.75	150&170 1 1 1		
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MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw



One-Way ANOVA - Minitab Results





Identify Variation Sources

Pooled StDev =

49.125

50.000

49.925

0.881

10

10

10

3

4

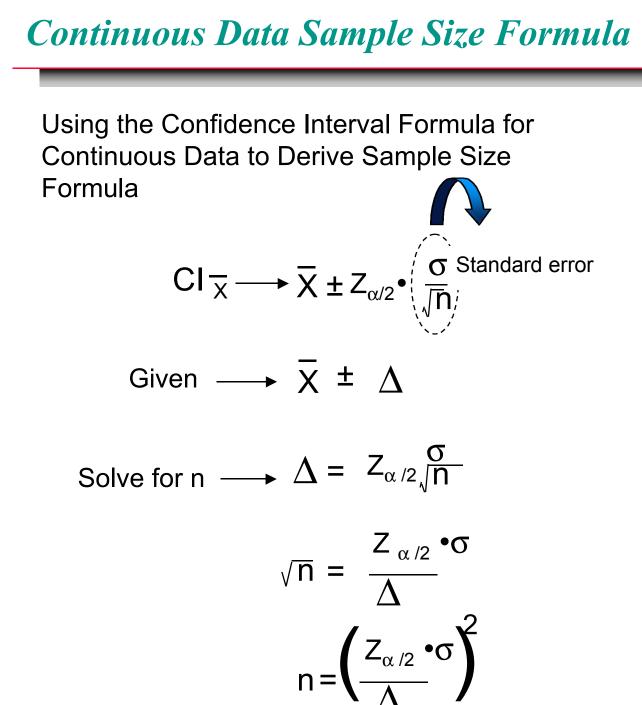
5



Exercise 6: One-Way ANOVA

- Use your team's catapult data.
- Is there an indication that any one operator's average distance is different from the others?
 - 1. State your hypotheses
 - 2. Do a One-Way ANOVA
 - 3. What can you conclude from the results?

Understanding Sample Size and Risk





How To Estimate s When It Is Unknown

3 Ways To Estimate s

Use an existing X or R chart

- $\hat{s} = \bar{R}/d_2$ where d_2 is control chart factor
- $\hat{s} = (UCL \overline{X})/3$
- Collect a small pre-sample & calculate s (n = 30)
- Ask subject matter experts to take an educated guess at the plausible range of data
 - \hat{s} = (Highest known value Lowest known value)/6

Ways To Determine **D**

- Use business knowledge
- Take the *D* from the sample size you can afford; for example with 95% confidence

96)

$$\Delta = \left(\frac{1.96 (\sigma)}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \text{ if } n = 15 \& s = 3$$

$$\Delta = \left(\frac{1.96 \times 3}{3.87}\right) = 1.51$$

Consider the minimum resolution of measurement equipment.
 For example, don't set *D* to minutes if you can only measure hours

Exercises With The Formulas

Assume Sample Size Is Less Than 5% Of The Population Size



In your table team, answer the assigned questions and be prepared to report out your answers. Use Minitab when possible. Assume confidence level = 95%

GE)

- **1.** We want to estimate the average cycle time within 2 days. A preliminary estimate of the population standard deviation is 8 days. How many observations should we take?
- 2. We only can get our hands on 36 observations. How precisely can we estimate average performance, in terms of the population standard deviations?

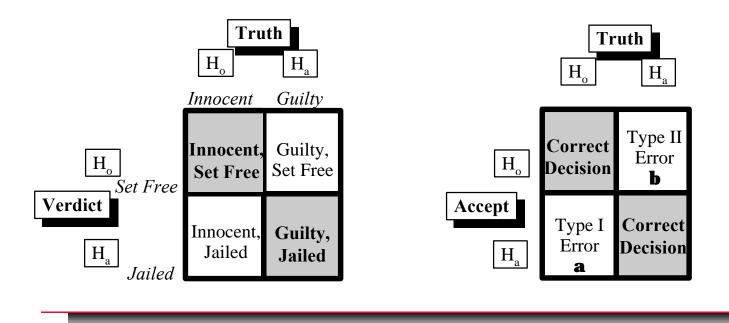
Time

15 minutes



Type I error: Reject H_o when H_o is true **a** = The probability of making a Type I error **1 - a** = The probability of accepting H_o when H_o is true **Type II error**: Accept H_o when H_a is true **b** = The probability of making a Type II error **Power = 1 - b** = The probability of accepting H_a when H_a is true

¥)



Making D	Decisions	
LSL 1	A B USL 2 3 4	5
$\alpha/2$ Which distribution	$\alpha^{/2}$ n (A or B) did these samp	les come from?
<u>Sample</u>	Distribution	

98.

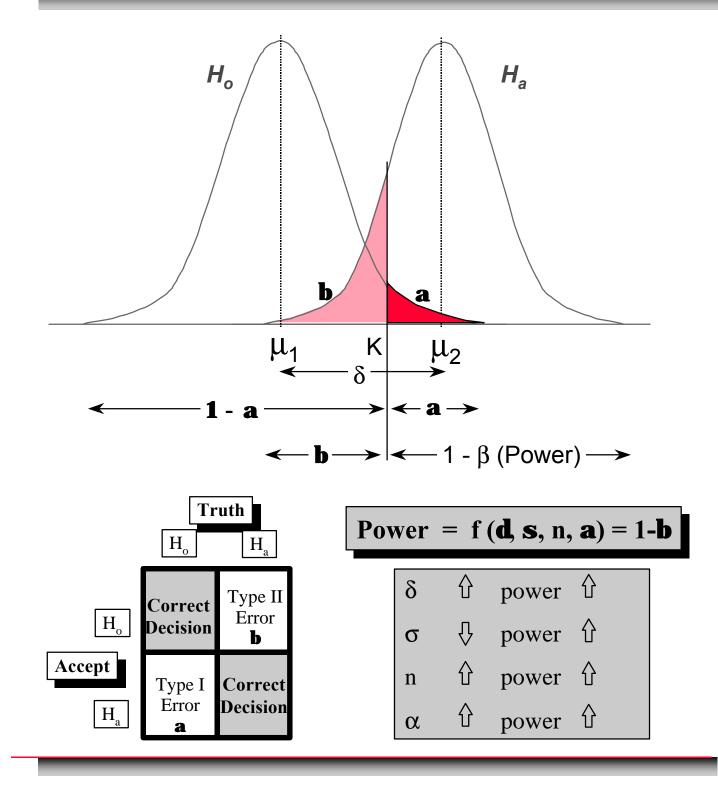
1	
2	
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4	
5	

Could sample 3 have come from distribution B? If it did, we just made a Type II error. We missed an opportunity.

How can we improve our decision making capability?



Power of a Test



Identify Variation Sources

Sample Size for the One Sample t-Test

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Calculate the power and sample size for a one-sample t-te	est	12

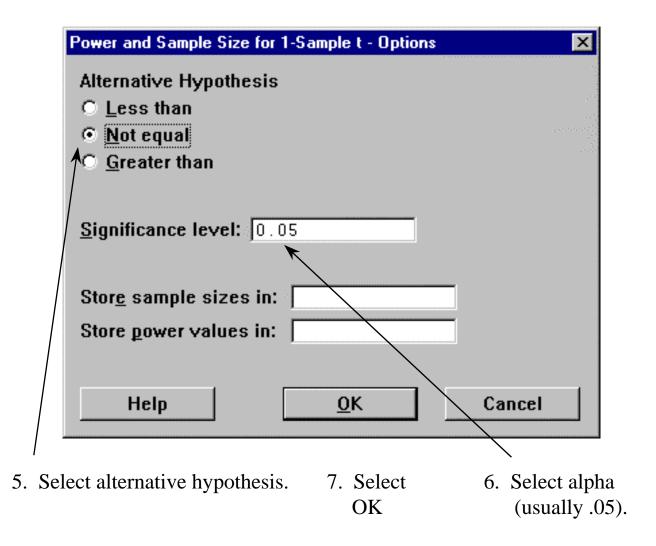
Sample Size for the One Sample t-Test

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Sample Size for the One Sample t-Test

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Sample Size for the One Sample t-test

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Power and Sample Size	
1-Sample t Test	
Testing mean = null (versus not = null)	
Calculating power for mean = null + 0.5 Alpha = 0.05 Sigma = 1	
Alpha - 0.05 Signa - 1	
Sample Target Actual Size Power Power	
18 0.5000 0.5164	
22 0.6000 0.6092	
27 0.7000 0.7058 34 0.8000 0.8078	
44 0.9000 0.9000	
54 0.9500 0.9502	
	_
Undo or redo the last command	

For a one sample t-test, 44 samples are needed for 90% power.

Identify Variation Sources



Example: Sample Size for the Two Sample t-test

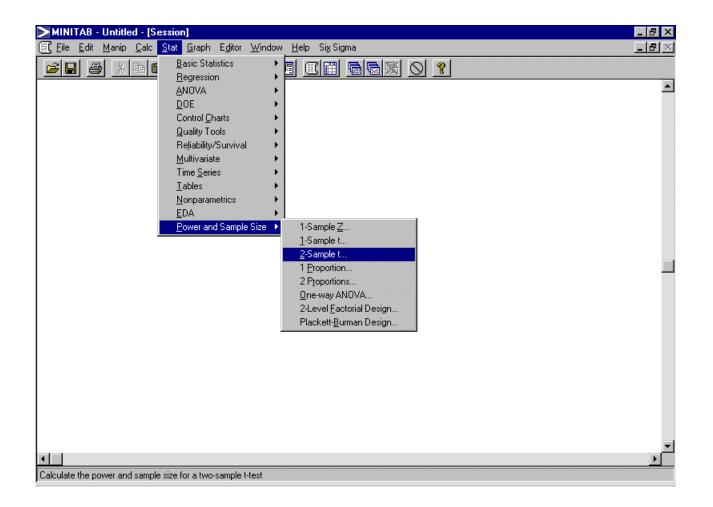
Given the problem of trying to determine if the average distance of operator 1 is different than operator 2, what is the power of the test? (use the data from Example 3)

difference = 49.7 - 49.37 = .33 s_p = 1.02 n = 10

Example: Sample Size for the Two Sample t-Test

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MINITAB FILE: (Create Your Own)



Example: Sample Size for the Two Sample t-Test

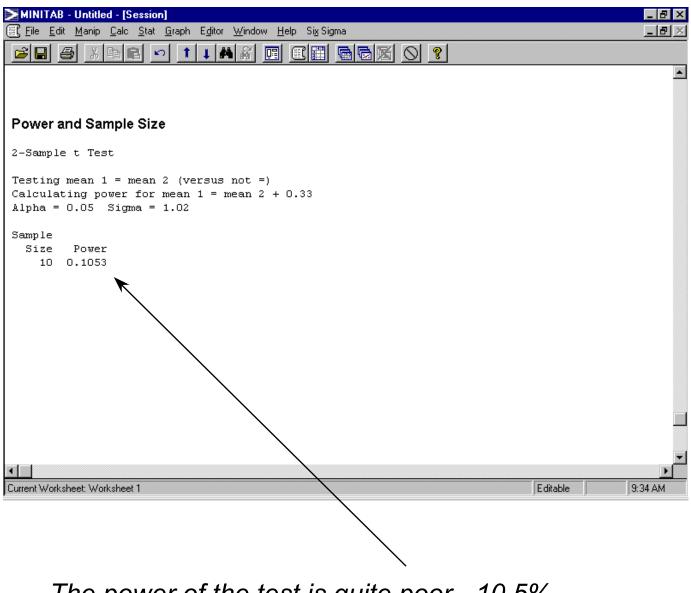
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Identify Variation Sources

Example: Sample Size for the Two Sample t-Test

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- Suppose that you are trying to show that H_a: μ₁ > μ₂ and are interested in detecting a difference between samples of 2 inches or more.
 - What would your sample size need to be to have a test with 90% power?
 - You also believe that the pooled standard deviation is approximately 1 inch. Use a = .05

Summary of Hypothesis Tests

96)

Run Charts - H_{o} : There are no trends, cluster, mixtures, or oscillations H_a: There exist trends, clusters, mixtures, or oscillations Normality Test H_o: Data is normally distributed — H_a: Data is not normally distributed Homogeneity of Variance $- H_0: \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ $H_a: \sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$ 1-sample t-test $-H_{0}$: $\mu = 50$ *H_a*: $\mu \neq 50$ 2-sample t-test $H_a: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ $-H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ - H_0 : $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4$ H_a : At least one μ is different from the others.

Take Aways—Hypothesis Testing Continuous Y; Discrete X

- The four basic steps in analyzing your data:
 - stability—looks for trends, clusters, oscillations, or mixtures (run chart)
 - shape—determines whether the data is normally distributed (Anderson-Darling Test)

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- spread—determines the variation of the process (Confidence Interval, Levene's Test)
- centering—determines the mean of the process (1 or 2 Sample T-test, 1-Way ANOVA)
- 95% confidence gives a range for accepting H_o.
 - If $H_o: \mu = constant = T$, and the target (T) is not included within the confidence range, it can be concluded that the process is off target.

Take Aways—Hypothesis Testing Continuous Y; Discrete X

The p-value is the probability that you will be wrong if you select the alternative hypothesis.

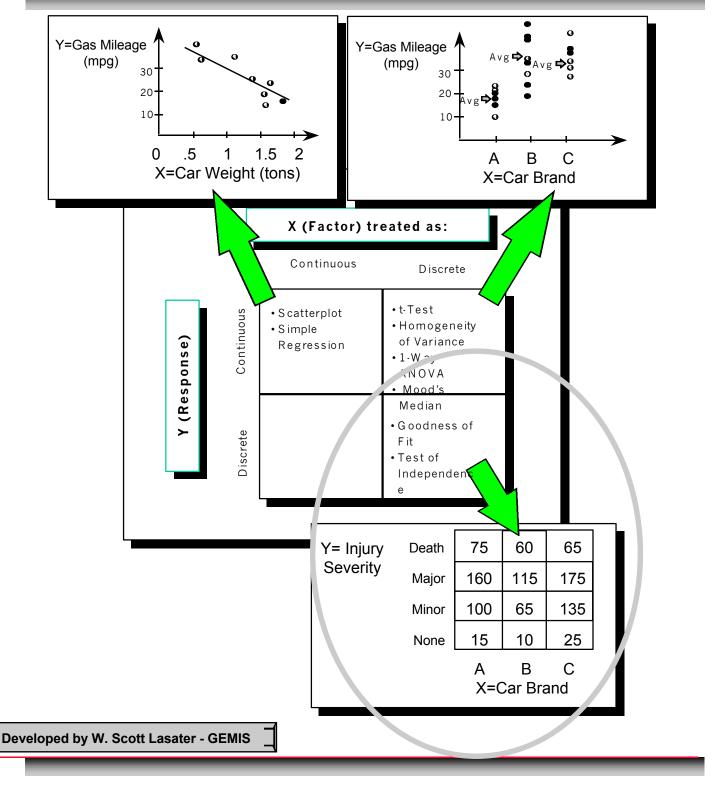
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- The p-value is the most common decision criteria that will be used in our analyses
- The power of a test, 1-Beta, is the probability of rejecting H_a when H_a is true.
 - the probability of correctly detecting that a change has occurred

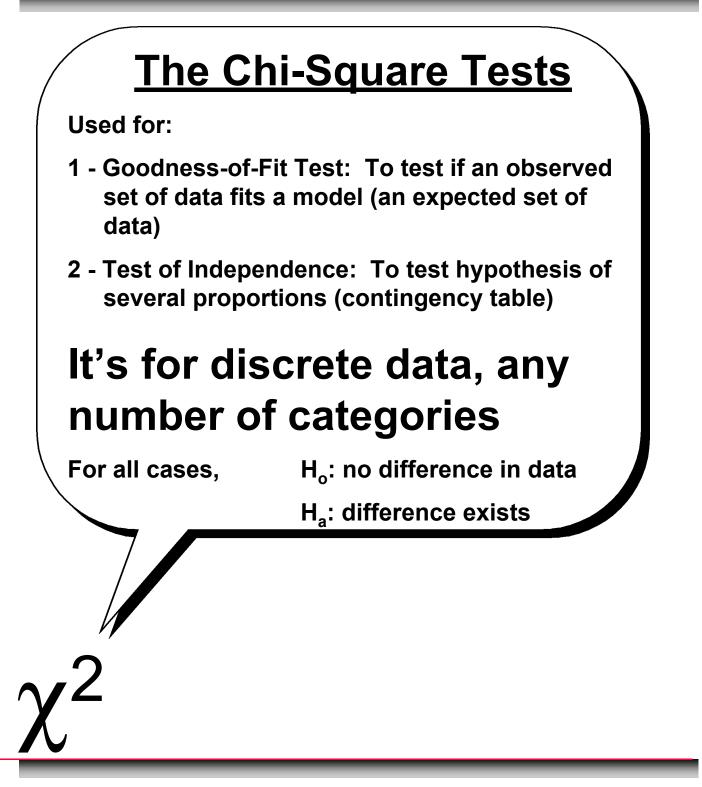
Hypothesis Testing: Discrete Y; Discrete X

96)

Discrete Y; Discrete X









96)

Suppose we flip a coin N = 100 times and observe 63 heads and 37 tails. Could this ratio of heads to tails occur by chance or should we conclude the coin is somehow biased ?

$$\chi^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{g} \frac{(f_{o} - f_{e})^{2}}{f_{e}}$$

$$g = number of categories$$

$$f_{o} = observed frequency$$

$$f_{e} = expected frequency$$



	Observed (f _o)	Expected (f _e)	$\frac{\left(\mathbf{f_o} - \mathbf{f_e}\right)^2}{\mathbf{f_e}}$
Heads	63	50	3.38
Tails	37	50	3.38
		χ^2 =	= 6.76

The Goodness-of-Fit Test

To determine whether a sample comes from a population with a known distribution, calculate chi-square as shown on the previous page.

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- H₀ = good fit (observed distribution is consistent with random outcomes from the expected model)
- H_a = sampled population does not have the expected distribution

If the observed frequencies are close to the expected frequencies, chi-square is small. So a low chi-square leads to rejecting H_a .

If chi-square is greater than a critical value, the null hypothesis is rejected.

The critical values of chi-square for various confidence levels are given in the table, "Chi-Square Distribution."

Each of the expected frequencies must be at least 5 for this test to be valid.



The chi-square distribution has "degrees of freedom" as a parameter.

For a goodness-of-fit test, the number of degrees of freedom is *k* - 1, where *k* is the number of possible outcomes.

Thus for the penny example,

dof = 2 - 1 = 1



If the chi-square statistic is less than the critical value in the table, the null hypothesis (good fit) is accepted. If not, the alternative hypothesis (that the data are not typical of the expected distribution) is accepted. For the penny example:

Critical value ($\alpha = 0.05$, dof = 1) = 3.841

Since the statistic from the data, 6.76, is greater than the critical value, the alternative hypothesis is accepted: the penny tested had a bias.

Chi-Square Distribution

df	.250	.100	.050	.025	.010	.005	.001	Alpha
1	1.323	2.706	(3.841)	5.024	6.635	7.879	10.828	
2	2.773	4.605	5.991	7.378	9.210	10.597	13.816	
3	4.108	6.251	7.815	9.348	11.345	12.838	16.266	
4	5.385	7.779	9.488	11.143	13.277	14.860	18.467	
5	6.626	9.236	11.070	12.832	15.086	16.750	20.515	
6	7.841	10.645	12.592	14.449	16.812	18.548	22.458	
7	9.037	12.017	14.067	16.013	18.475	20.278	24.322	
8	10.219	13.362	15.507	17.535	20.090	21.955	26.125	
9	11.389	14.684	16.919	19.023	21.666	23.589	27.877	
10	12.549	15.987	18.307	20.483	23.209	25.188	29.588	
11	13.701	17.275	19.675	21.920	24.725	26.757	31.264	
12	14.845	18.549	21.026	23.337	26.217	28.300	32.909	
13	15.984	19.812	22.362	24.736	27.688	29.819	34.528	
14	17.117	21.064	23.685	26.119	29.141	31.319	36.123	
15	18.245	22.307	24.996	27.488	30.578	32.801	37.697	
16	19.369	23.542	26.296	28.845	32.000	34.267	39.252	
17	20.489	24.769	27.587	30.191	33.409	35.718	40.790	
18	21.605	25.989	28.869	31.526	34.805	37.156	43.312	
19	22.718	27.204	30.144	32.852	36.191	38.582	43.820	
20	23.828	28.412	31.410	34.170	37.566	39.997	45.315	
21	24.935	29.615	32.671	35.479	38.932	41.401	46.797	
22	26.039	30.813	33.924	36.781	40.289	42.796	48.268	
23	27.141	32.007	35.172	38.076	41.638	44.181	49.728	
24	28.241	33.196	36.415	39.364	42.980	45.558	51.179	
25	29.339	34.382	37.652	40.646	44.314	46.928	52.620	
26	30.434	35.563	38.885	41.923	45.642	48.290	54.052	
27	31.528	36.741	40.113	43.194	46.963	49.645	55.476	
28	32.620	37.916	41.337	44.461	48.278	50.993	56.892	
29	33.711	39.087	42.557	45.722	49.588	52.336	58.302	
30	34.800	40.256	43.773	46.979	50.892	53.672	59.703	
40	45.616	51.805	55.758	59.342	63.691	66.766	73.402	
50	56.334	63.167	67.505	71.420	76.154	79.490	86.661	
60	66.981	74.397	79.082	83.298	88.379	91.952	99.607	
70	77.577	85.527	90.531	95.023	100.425	104.215	112.317	
80	88.130	96.578	101.879	106.629	112.329	116.321	124.839	
90	98.650	107.565	113.145	118.136	124.116	128.299	137.208	
100	109.141	118.498	124.342	129.561	135.807	140.169	149.449	

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Chi-Square Distribution

df	.995	.990	.975	.950	.900	.750	.500	Alpha
1	.000039	.000160	.000980	.003930	.015800	.101500	.455000	i inpitu
2	0.010	0.020	0.051	0.103	0.211	0.575	1.386	
3	0.072	0.115	0.216	0.352	0.584	1.213	2.366	
4	0.207	0.297	0.484	0.711	1.064	1.923	3.357	
5	0.412	0.554	0.831	1.145	1.610	2.675	4.351	
6	0.676	0.872	1.237	1.635	2.204	3.455	5.348	
7	0.989	1.239	1.690	2.167	2.833	4.255	6.346	
8	1.344	1.646	2.180	2.733	3.490	5.071	7.344	
9	1.735	2.088	2.700	3.325	4.168	5.899	8.343	
10	2.156	2.558	3.247	3.940	4.865	6.737	9.342	
11	2.603	3.053	3.816	4.575	5.578	7.584	10.341	
12	3.074	3.571	4.404	5.226	6.304	8.438	11.340	
13	3.565	4.107	5.009	5.892	7.042	9.299	12.340	
14	4.075	4.660	5.629	6.571	7.790	10.165	13.339	
15	4.601	5.229	6.262	7.261	8.547	11.036	14.339	
16	5.142	5.812	6.908	7.962	9.312	11.912	15.338	
17	5.697	6.408	7.564	8.672	10.085	12.792	16.338	
18	6.265	7.015	8.231	9.390	10.865	13.675	17.338	
19	6.844	7.633	8.907	10.117	11.651	14.562	18.338	
20	7.434	8.260	9.591	10.851	12.443	15.452	19.337	
21	0.024	0.007	10 000	11 501	12 240	16 244	20.227	
21	8.034	8.897	10.283	11.591	13.240	16.344	20.337	
22	8.643	9.542	10.982	12.338	14.041	17.240	21.337	
23 24	9.260	10.196	11.688	13.091	14.848	18.137	22.337	
24 25	9.886 10.520	10.856 11.524	12.401 13.120	13.848 14.611	15.659 16.473	19.037 19.939	23.337 24.337	
23	10.320	11.324	15.120	14.011	10.475	19.959	24.337	
26	11.160	12.198	13.844	15.379	17.292	20.843	25.336	
20 27	11.808	12.178	14.573	16.151	18.114	20.843	26.336	
28	12.461	13.565	15.308	16.928	18.939	22.657	27.336	
29	13.121	14.256	16.047	17.708	19.768	23.567	28.336	
30	13.787	14.953	16.791	18.493	20.599	24.478	29.336	
20	101/07	1 11900	101/21	101170	201077	2	271000	
40	20.707	22.164	24.433	26.509	29.051	33.660	39.335	
50	27.991	29.707	32.357	34.764	37.689	42.942	49.335	
60	35.535	37.485	40.482	43.188	46.459	52.294	59.335	
70	43.275	45.442	48.758	51.739	55.329	61.698	69.334	
80	51.172	53.540	57.153	60.391	64.278	71.145	79.334	
90	59.196	61.754	65.647	69.126	73.291	80.625	89.334	
100	67.328	70.065	74.222	77.929	82.358	90.133	99.334	

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Alternately, a p-value (the probability of being wrong if accepting the alternative hypothesis) can be computed in EXCEL as follows:

= CHIDIST(statistic,dof) = CHIDIST(6.76,1)

Excel will return the p-value, in this case 0.0093. Since the probability of being wrong is less than 0.05, we accept the alternative hypothesis: the penny had a bias.



Test for Independence

Suppose a bill has been introduced in Congress to raise the Interstate speed limit to 75 mph. A polling organization polls 45 Republicans and 55 Democrats, and finds 30 Republicans and 35 Democrats oppose the bill. Is there a significant effect of party affiliation on preference for the bill?

 H_o = no difference between parties

H_a = one party likes the bill significantly more than the other

We organize the data in a "contingency table"

	Republicans	Democrats	
Oppose	f _o = 30	f _o = 35	Total = 65
Favor	f _o = 15	f _o = 20	Total = 35
	Total = 45	Total = 55	



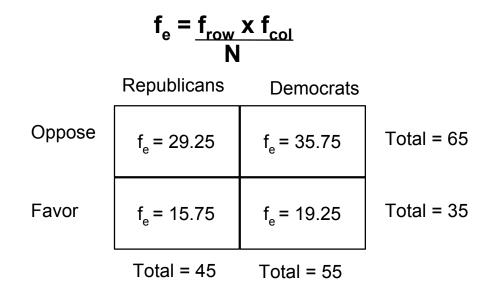
Test for Independence (cont.)

Now calculate the expected distribution, given there is no party preference. For example, the expected frequency of Republicans opposing the bill would be:

Total people <u>opposing bill</u> _x Total Republicans Total people

 $= (65/100) \times 45 = 29.25$

Note that for each cell, this is the total frequency for the row, times the total frequency for the column, divided by the total population (see chart on following page) How to calculate the expected frequency and Degrees of Freedom



When performing a chi-square test on a contingency table, the number of degrees of freedom equals the number of rows in the table minus one, times the number of columns in the table minus one.

$$dof = (2-1) \times (2-1) = 1$$

Minitab Example

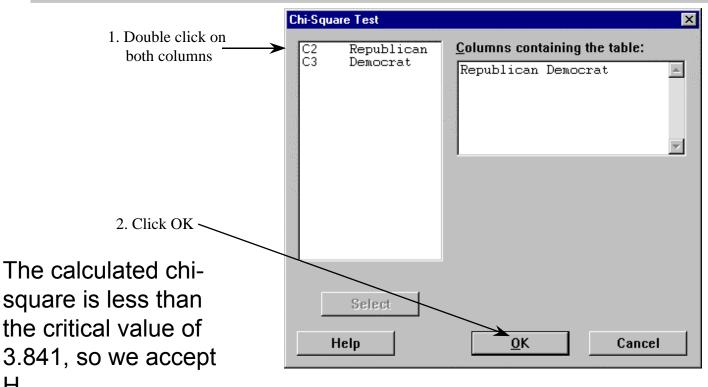
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↓ 1 2 3 4 5	C1-T Oppose	Republic 30	Democrat 35	C4		C6	C7		
↓ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 7 8	C1-T Oppose Favor	Republic 30	Democrat 35 20				C7	C8	

*H*_o: There is no difference between party affiliation and preference on the bill

H_a: There is a difference between party affiliation and preference on the bill



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good fit.

than .05 so we are

confidence zone of

within our 95%

political party

affiliation and

speed limit bill.

E Session The p-value is greater **Chi-Square Test** Expected counts are printed below observed counts Republic Democrat Total 1 30 35 65 Minitab calculates 35.75 < 29.25 the expected 2 15 20 35 frequency (f_e) There is no apparent 15.75 19.25 relationship between Total 45 55 100 0.019 + 0.016 +Chi-Sq = 0.036 + 0.029 = 0.100DF = 1, P-Value = 0.752

Identify Variation Sources

preference on the



L1 Example Using Chi-Square

To determine if location has an impact on proposal hit rate you compare the capability of "Location 1" and "Location 2" by using the L1 spreadsheet.

A unit is a proposal.

Each proposal has one opportunity.

A defect is a losing proposal.

Product/CEO/ Process	Defects	Unit	Opt	Total Opt	DPU	DPO	DPMO	Shift	Long Term Capabilit	Sigma
	<u>D</u>	<u>U</u>	<u>OP</u>	<u>TOP</u>	<u>DPU</u>	<u>DPO</u>	<u>DPMO</u>	<u>Shift</u>	<u>Sigma-L</u>	<u>Z.B</u>
Location 1	14	52	1	52	0.2692	0.269231	269231	1.5	0.61	2.11
Location 2	6	43	1	43	0.1395	0.139535	139535	1.5	1.08	2.58
Grand Total	20			95		0.210526	210526	1.5	0.80	2.30

Does "Location 2" really have a better proposal hit rate than "Location 1?"

L1 Chi-Square Example Using Minitab

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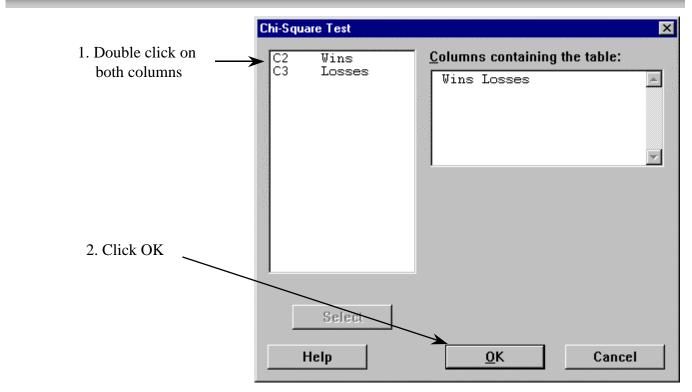
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Perfo	orm a c	hi-squar	e test fo	r asso	ciation (n	on-inde	pendenc	e) in	a two	-way con	tingeno	y table					

- *H*_o: Location does not impact the ability to win/lose a proposal
- *H_a:* Location impacts the ability to win/lose a proposal



L1 Example Input & Results



Since the p-value is greater than .05 we accept H_{o} .

There is no statistically significant relationship between location and proposal hit rate.

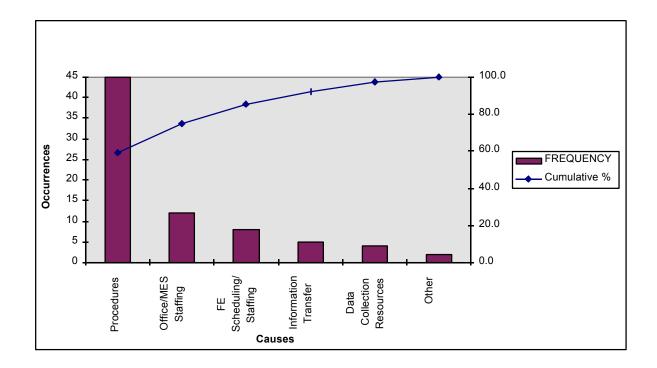
You would run a 12.3% risk of making an incorrect decision if you concluded that "Location 2" had a better proposal hit rate than "Location 1."

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MTB > ChiSquare 'Wins'	'Losses'.		
Chi-Square Test			
Expected counts are prin	ted below observed counts		
Wins Losses 1 38 14 41.05 10.95	Total 52		
2 37 6 33.95 9.05	43		
Total 75 20	95		
Chi-Sq = 0.227 + 0.851	+ _= 2.382		
DF (1, P-Value = 0.123			
MTB >			
			_
Current Worksheet: Worksheet 1		Editable 8:51 Pt	М

Chi-Square Test

Product/CEO/Process	Defects	Unit	Opt	Total Opt	DPU	DPO	DPMO	Shift	Long Term Capability	Sigma
	<u>D</u>	<u>U</u>	<u>OP</u>	<u><u>TOP</u></u>	DPU	DPO	DPMO		Sigma-L	<u>Z.B</u>
Loan/Borrowed FE/TA (Actual)	76	1	215	215	76.0000	0.353488	353488	1.5	0.38	1.88
Target	8	1	215	215	8.0000	0.037209	37209	1.5	1.78	3.28
Actual	0	1	12	12	0.0000	0.000000	0	1.5	1.59	3.09
Grand Total	84			442		0.190045	190045	1.5	0.88	2.38

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The Confidence Interval Formula

Using The Confidence Interval Formula For Attributes Data To Derive Sample Size Formula

Confidence interval for attribute data

$$P_B \pm Z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{P_B (1-P_B)}{n}}$$

Given $\rightarrow P_B \pm \Delta$

Solve for
$$n \rightarrow \Delta = Z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{P_B(1-P_B)}{n}}$$

$$n = \left(\frac{Z_{\alpha/2}}{\Delta}\right)^2 P_B (1 - P_B)$$





Attribute Data Case: Estimating A Population Proportion

Minimum Sample Size Necessary (95% confidence interval)

$$n = \left(\frac{1.96}{\Delta}\right)^2 P_B \left(1 - P_B\right)$$

I Example

We want to estimate the proportion defective (P) within ± 0.02 (i.e., **D** = 0.02). We expect P to be approximately 0.05

$$n = \left(\frac{1.96}{.02}\right)^2 [.05 (1-.05)]$$
$$= 456$$

How To Estimate P_B And **D**

Estimate P_B

Take a small pre-sample of data (n @ 100) and calculate P

96)

- Use p from an existing control chart
- Set P_B = .5 as a worst case (largest n)

Estimate D

- See estimation of **D** for continuous data
- To determine **D** for a given sample size

$$\Delta = Z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{P_B (1 - P_B)}{n}}$$

Exercises With The Formulas

Assume Sample Size Is Less Than 5% Of The Population Size

Instructions

In your table team, answer the assigned questions and be prepared to report out your answers. Use Minitab when possible. Assume confidence level = 95%

(H)

- **1.** Given a sample size of 100, how precisely can we estimate a proportion defective estimated as P=0.2?
- 2. Given an estimated proportion defective guessed to be somewhere in the range of 5% to 15%, how many observations should we take to estimate the proportion defective within 2%?

Time

15 minutes



Discrete data sample size spreadsheet



Discrete data sample size spreadsheet

The 95% Confidence Interval sheet is:

Binomial (Pass/Fail) Confidence Intervals (CI) (based on tail areas of the beta distribution) To use this sheet:

- 1. Type in the desired confidence level
- 2. Type in the total number of units (good + bad)
- 3. Type in the total number of opportunities
- 4. Type the number of failed (defects) units

The CI on the expected failure rate is calculated

The Sample Size Required sheet is:

Sample size required to distinguish between two proportions (based on binomial) ie. how many samples does it take to verify that corrective action has had an impact The sheet uses a starting and ending PPM, requires a CI% and opportunity count to be entered.

The Factor Reduction sheet is:

Given a level of reduction, how many samples are required for many different starting PPM's

GE Medical Systems Revised 2/23/00

Password required to unprotect any sheet is sigma

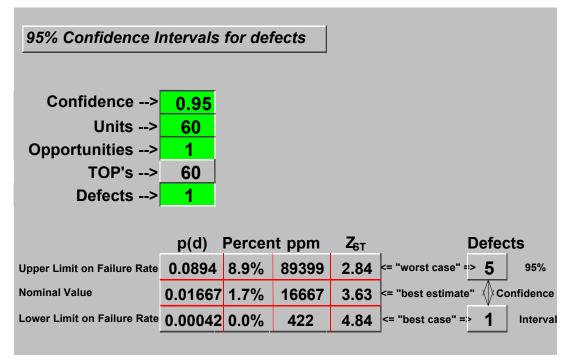
ATTRIBUT.XLS is an Excel spreadsheet that handles sample size for discrete data. The Intro Tab is shown here.





The 95% Confidence Interval Tab

If we claim to have reduced our defects or missing signatures on invoices etc. down to 1 out of 60, the spreadsheet shows you that with the same level of statistical confidence (95%) we could just as likely have seen 0% defects or 9% defects out of 60.



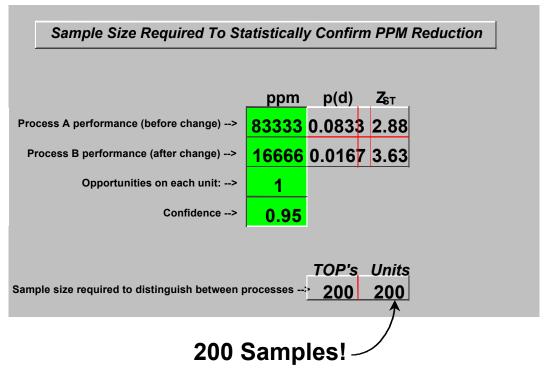
If our project started at 5 defects out of 60 (8.3%) we could not claim to have made a statistical difference.

Another way to read this is if someone claims to have fixed something and they are now running at 1 bad out of their last 60 we could say that we don't buy it. Statistically they could as likely be at 5 out of 60.

The Sample Size Required Tab

If I started at 5 bad out of 60 (83,333 PPM) and now I think I am at 1 out of 60 (16,666 PPM) how many samples will I need to take to be confident that (with discrete data) I have truly made this claimed improvement?

(H)

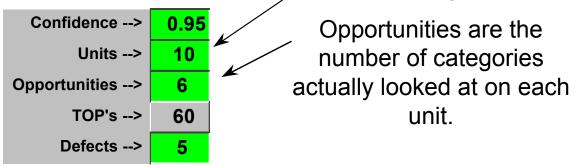


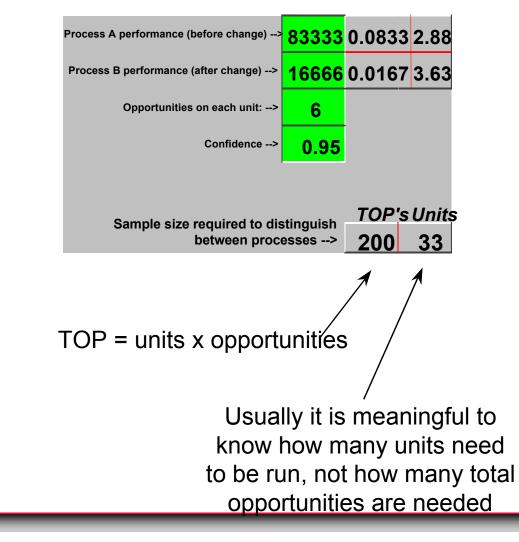
200 samples are needed. This is why (see the previous page) any Six Sigma person would not buy the statement that "we made an improvement going from 5/60 to 1/60". 200 parts need to be counted before we are statistically confident in the change.

Spreadsheet details . . .

You can change green fields, but not red fields Units are the number of items or widgets tested

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Take Aways—Hypothesis Testing: Discrete Y; Discrete X

Chi-Square Tests

- Goodness of Fit Test
 - Does our data fit an expected distribution?

%

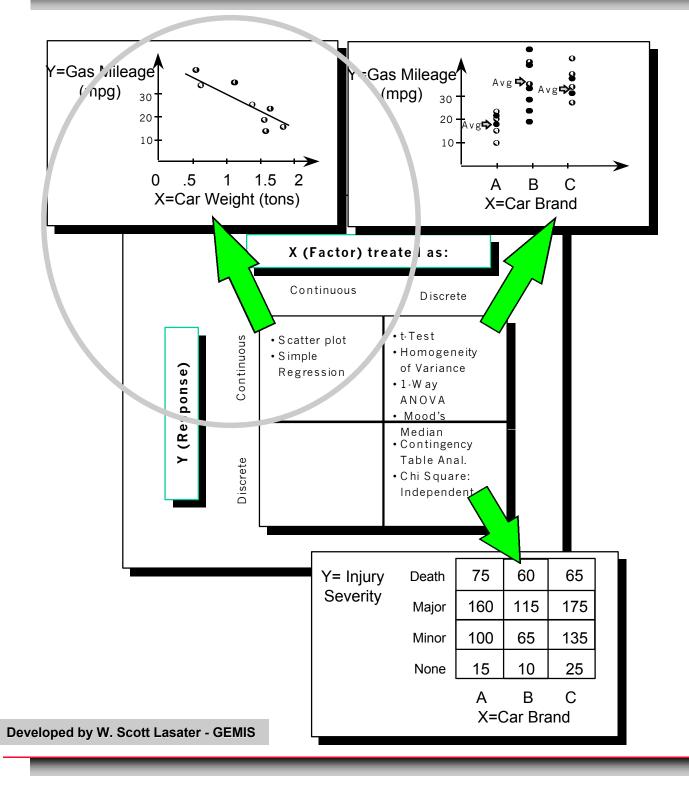
- Test of Independence
 - Does some factor have an affect on the output?
- χ^2 statistic
 - $-\chi^2$ > critical value Accept H_o
 - χ^2 < critical value Reject H_o
- p-value
 - $p < 0.05 Accept H_o$
 - $p > 0.05 Reject H_o$



Hypothesis Testing: Continuous Y; Continuous X



Continuous Y; Continuous X

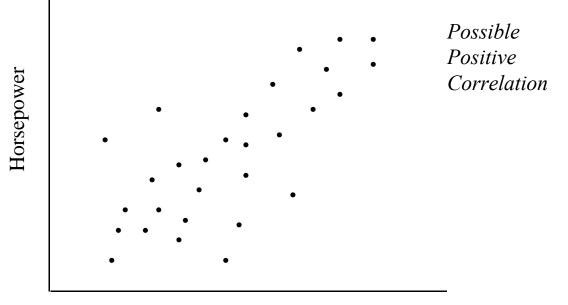






Purpose: To study the possible relationship between one variable and another.

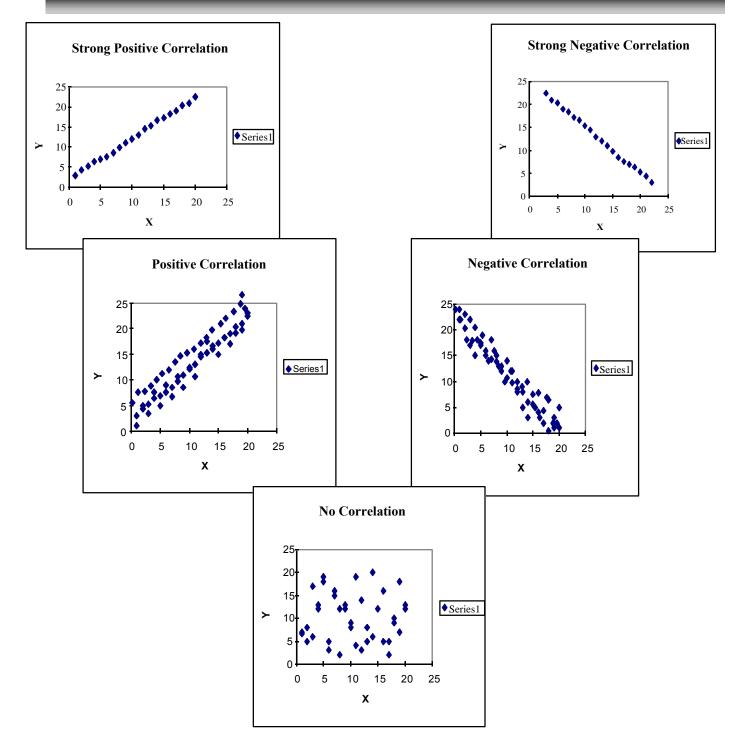
When: To test a theory that two variables are related.



Engine Size



X and Y Data Correlation



Identify Variation Sources

Building a Scatter Plot

1. Collect 20 - 100 paired data points

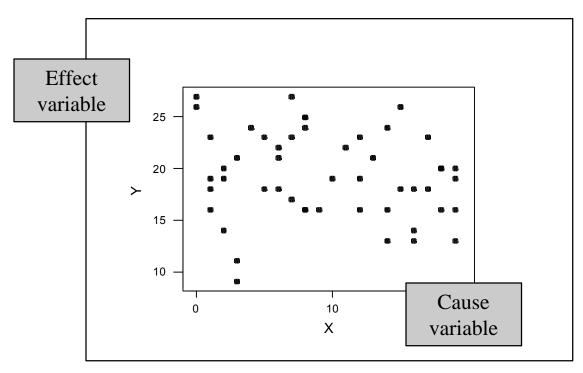
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0	26
1	23
8	16
12	23
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17	18
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11	22
0	27
6	22
16	14
3	9
3	11
2	14
6	21
5	18
17	23
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Building a Scatter Plot

2. Draw axes



3. Plot data

If a value repeats, circle point for as many times as that value repeats.

4. Analyze data to determine correlation

Straightness of line and tightness of cluster indicate strength of relationship.



Scatter Plot Example

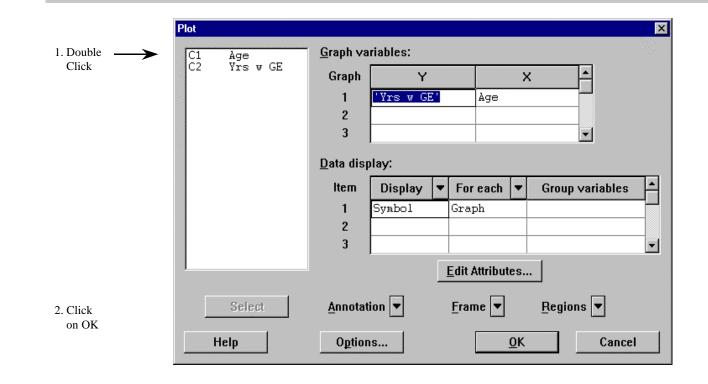
Is there a relationship between age and years with GE?

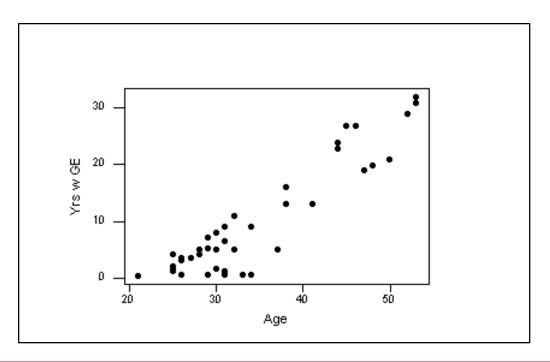
MINITAB FILE: Age_yrge.mtw

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Scatter Plot Input & Output





Catapult Scatter Plot Exercise

Use a scatter plot to investigate the possible relationship between the cocking angle and the projectile flight distance.

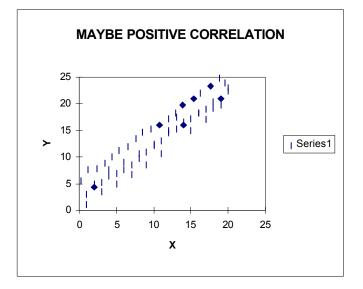
96)

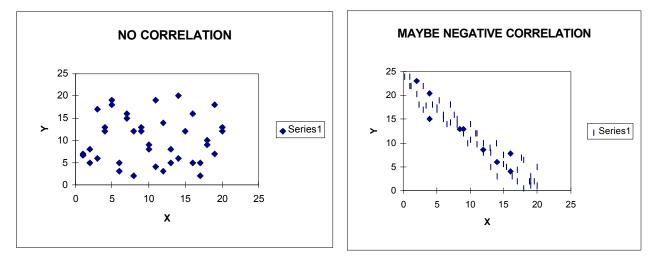
 Use the data in the Minitab file, Catapult.mtw



Simple Linear Regression

- How to fit a line to data
- How to quantify correlation
- How to predict values





Simple Linear Regression

We have shown how to make scatter plots of data and talked about positive and negative correlation of two data sets.

¥6)

- Regression analysis is a statistical technique used to model and investigate the relationship between two or more variables. The model is often used for prediction.
- Regression is a hypothesis test H_a: The model is a significant predictor of the response.
- It may be used to analyze relationships between the "Xs," or between "Y" and "X."
- Regression is a powerful tool, but can never replace engineering or manufacturing process knowledge about trends.

Regression Analysis Example

MINITAB FILE: Age_yrge.mtw

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Regression Analysis Example

	Regression
. Double Click	→ C1 Age C2 Yrs w GE Predictors: Age
2. Click OK	Graphs Options Select Results Storage Help OK Cancel
	MINITAB - Untitled - [Session] File Edit Manip Calc Stat Graph Editor Window Help Six Sigma File Edit Manip Calc Stat Graph Editor Window Help Six Sigma Regression Analysis The regression equation is Yrs w GE = - 25.1 + 1.01 Age
	Predictor Coef StDev T P Constant -25.062 2.483 -10.09 0.000 Age 1.01000 0.07015 14.40 0.000 S = 4.016 R-Sq = 83.5% R-Sq(adj) = 83.1% Analysis of Variance Image: Constant of Variance Image: Constant of Variance
	Source DF SS MS F P Regression 1 3342.9 3342.9 207.28 0.000 Residual Error 41 661.2 16.1 16.1 Total 42 4004.2 16.1 16.1
	Obs Age Yrs w GE Fit St Dev Fit Residual St Resid 12 34.0 0.500 9.278 0.613 -8.778 -2.21R 15 34.0 0.500 9.278 0.613 -8.778 -2.21R I Structure Structure Image: Structure Structure Image: Structure



Minitab Regression Calculation Explanation of Output

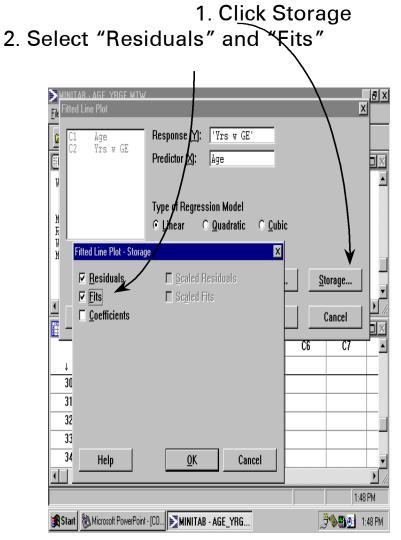
- The "p-values" for the constant (Y-intercept) and the predictor variables are read exactly as we have explained them in Hypothesis Testing.
- H_a: The factor is a significant predictor of the response.
- The value s is the "standard error of the prediction" = standard deviation of the residuals.
- R-square is the percent of variation explained by your model.
- R-square (adjusted) is the percent of variation explained by your model, adjusted for the number of terms in your model and the number of data points.
- The "p-value" for the regression is for whether the entire regression model is significant.
 - H_a: The model is a significant predictor of the response.

Correlation & Regression - Residual Plots

(H)

Use Residual Plots to test the assumptions of the analysis

When setting up Regression Analysis:



A **Fit** is the predicted value of response variable for a given value of the predictor variable.

A **Residual** is the difference between an actual observation and the fitted value (the difference between an individual data point and the predicted value).

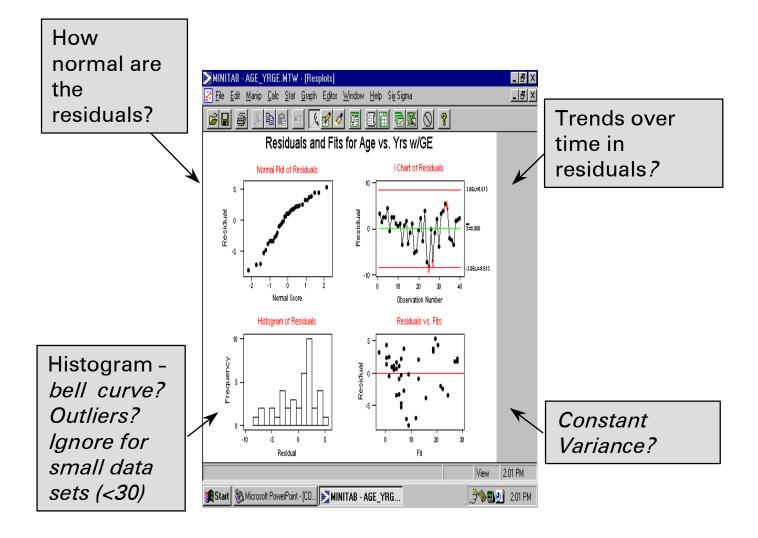
Correlation & Regression - Constructing Residual Plots

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Correlation & Regression - Interpreting the Output

(H)

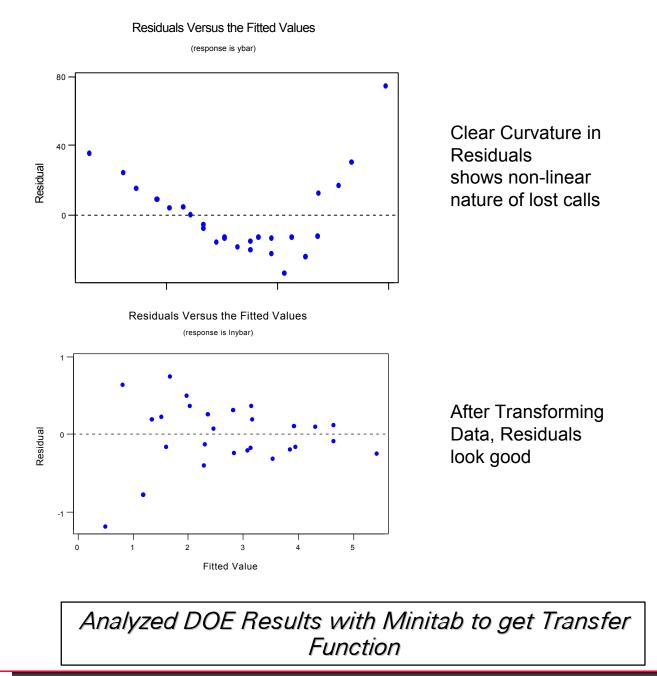


Look for Gross Violations of Assumptions. If You Find Problems, You May Need To Add Additional Terms (e.g. Interactions), Or Transform One Of The Variables

Correlation & Regression - Example

Example From GEL Call Center Project (Greg Simpson)

(H)

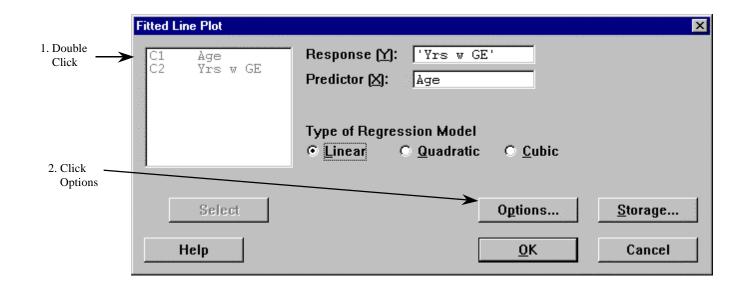


Regression Analysis Example: Confidence and Prediction Bands

MINITAB FILE: Age_yrge.mtw

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	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	
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1	30	8.0000						
2	26	3.0000						
3	25	25 1.7000						
4	29	5.2500						
5	45	27.0000						
Plot fitted line,	confidence, pre	diction intervals o	of polynomial re	gression				





Regression Analysis Input & Output

Fitted Line Plot - Options
Transformations □ Logten of Y □ Display logscale for Y variable □ Logten of X □ Display logscale for X variable
Display Options Display confidence bands Display prediction bands
Confidence level: 95.0
<u>T</u> itle:
Help <u>O</u> K Cancel
Regression Plot
$H_{\text{O}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 &$

A confidence band (or interval) is a measure of the certainty of the shape of the fitted regression line. In general, a 95% confidence band implies a 95% chance that the true line lies within the band. [Red lines]

(H)

A prediction band (or interval) is a measure of the certainty of the scatter of individual points about the regression line. In general 95% of the individual points (of the population on which the regression line is based) will be contained in the band. [Blue lines]



Perform a regression analysis on the distance versus cocking angle from the file Catapult.mtw

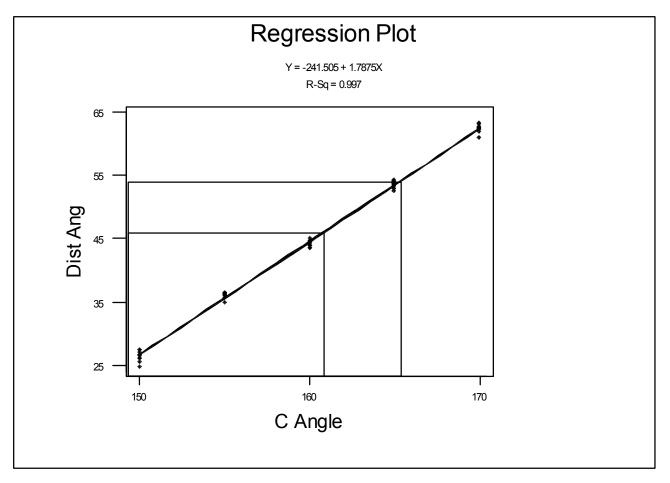
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What can you conclude?



Statistical Tolerancing

If you want to launch the projectile between 46" and 54," what should the tolerance on the cocking angle be?



Cocking Angle Tolerance: 161°, 165°

How does variation around the regression line effect the tolerance?

Identify Variation Sources



Use the prediction interval to include the variation around the regression line.

Draw the USL to the upper line and the LSL to the lower line.



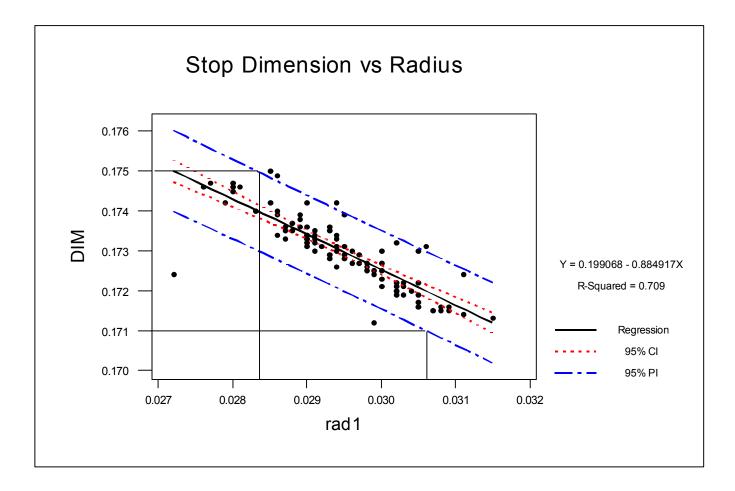
The additional variation reduces the tolerance window to 162°, 164°.

How do slope & negative correlation affect the tolerance window?



Negative Relationships

You still draw the USL to the upper line and the LSL to the lower line.



Note how the lines cross. The USL for Y defines the LSL for X.

Statistical Tolerancing Minitab Example

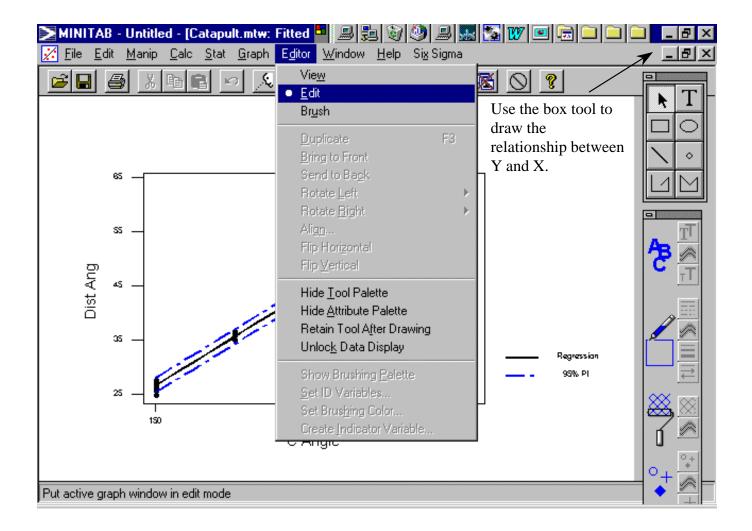
MINITAB FILE: Catapult.mtw

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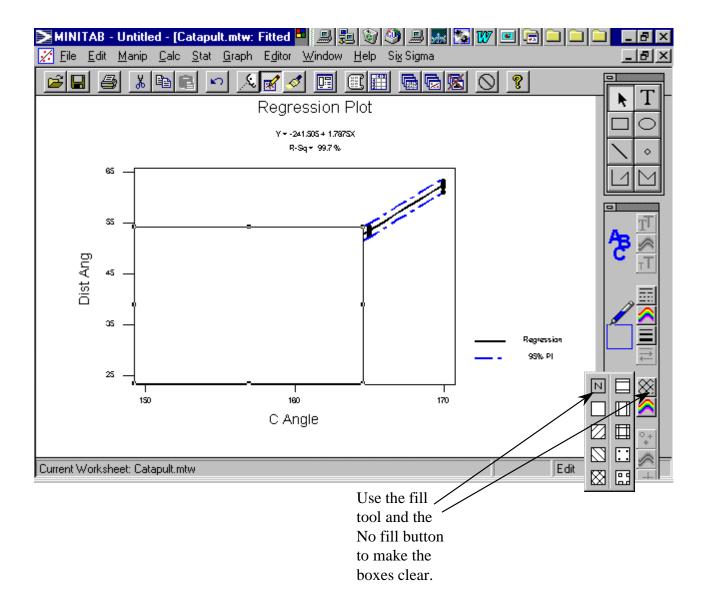
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Drawing the Tolerance Relationship

96)



Clearing the Boxes



96)



Multiple Regression

Multiple regression analysis is a method that enables you to quantify the relationship between a continuous process output (Y) and continuous input factors (Xs), or between a continuous process output (Y) and a combination of continuous and discrete input factors (Xs). Multiple regression is very useful for "mining" historical data to build a model that links the X variables to the Y variable. Such a model completes all *Analyze* phase objectives and may even define the process changes to make in the *Improve* phase. It also allows us to predict the Y output, based on the X values.

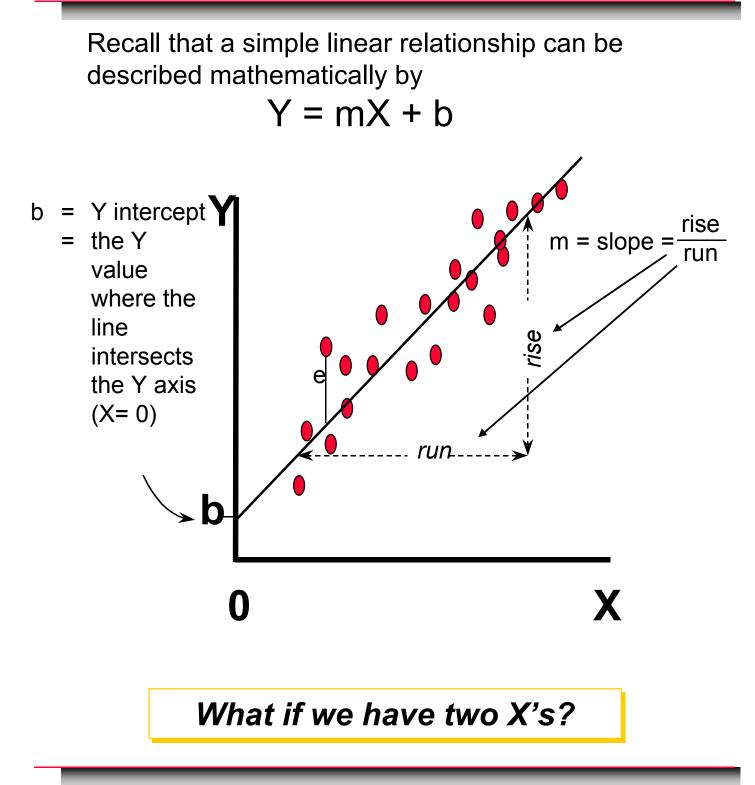
After completing this chapter, you will be able to:

- Put your data into the correct format for a multiple regression
- Complete a multiple regression analysis and interpret the results

What Questions does Regression Answer?

- How good of a job should we be able to do in predicting Y?
- Are there one or more Xs that simultaneously have strong effects on Y?
- Are there non-linear relationships between Y and one or more Xs?
- Are the X variables "clean?" Can the effects of the Xs be separated?
- How do we know that a regression equation is statistically valid?
- Does the model make sense?
- Is the set of Xs under study complete? Are there missing X variables?
- Is the model useful? How much confidence can one have in the model's prediction?
- Can model predictions be confirmed by testing suggested process changes?

Key Concepts: Simple Linear Relationship

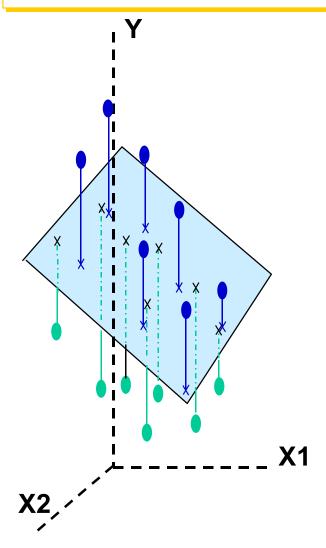


Key Concepts: Multiple Linear Relationship

(H)

Now we are fitting points to a plane, rather than a simple line.

The equation of a plane is $Y = b + m_1(X_1) + m_2(X_2)$



- The plane (or hyperplane) is determined according to the principle of least squares. This means that the sum of the squares of the distances (parallel to the y axis) from the data point to the line (plane or hyperplane) is minimized.
- The best-fit plane is centered in the plotted data with the actual data points dispersed randomly above and below the plane.



(H)

Multiple Regression with more than 2 Xs

- Beyond two Xs (three dimensions), we cannot visualize the best-fit shape; however, the principles of regression still apply.
- You are fitting the best "hyperplane" with an equation,

 $Y = b + m_1(X_1) + m_2(X_2) + \dots + m_n(X_n)$

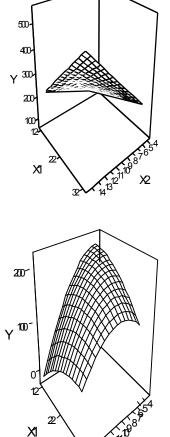
Multiple Regression with an interaction

- An interaction will change the tilt in the plane and put a kink in the plane.
- You are fitting the best "hyperplane" with an equation,

 $Y = b + m_1(X_1) + m_2(X_2) + m_3(X_1^*X_2)$

Multiple Regression with curvature

- Curvature results from higher order terms
- You are fitting a curved plane, $Y = b+m_1(X_1)+m_2$ $(X_2)+m_3(X_1*X_2)+m_4(X_1)^2+m_5(X_2)^2$



Multiple Regression is a powerful tool!

Identify Variation Sources

Multiple Regression -- Advantages & <u>Disadvantages</u>

Advantages:

- Regression extracts a lot of information from historical data.
- Can be used when have both continuous and discrete Xs
- Can gain information on interactions and higher order terms
- At a minimum, regression will reduce your X variable set before designed experimentation.
- Can obtain a predictive model

Disadvantages

 In some data sets, the X variables are correlated and interactions cannot be determined. Designed experimentation is the way to separate effects and interactions.

How does Multiple Regression compare to:

(H)

ANOVA

- ANOVA uses discrete Xs and a continuous Y...Multiple Regression lets us model a combination of discrete and continuous Xs or all continuous Xs with a continuous Y.
- ANOVA answers the percent contribution question...Multiple Regression will provide a model that can be used to predict behavior.

ANOVA GLM /Sum of Squares Analysis

• ANOVA GLM/SS enables percent contributions...Multiple Regression provides information on which variables are significant

Design of Experiments (DOE)

 In designed experiments, the data is collected in a manner that allows the X factors and interaction effects to be separated...Multiple Regression uses historical data in which the X factors and interactions may be correlated with each other. Thus the effects of one factor may be combined with another factor.

Key Concepts: Residuals

Residuals --

response value and the fitted value from the equation. Υ Residual χ Residual **X1 X2**

Residuals estimate an inability to predict.

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Are the difference between the actual

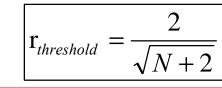
In a valid model, the residuals will be normally distributed about a mean of zero, independent of the X and Y values and randomly distributed over time.



Regression: Getting Started

Step

- Review your process map and cause and effect diagram to identify possible Xs. What Xs are controllable versus noise? What things might you change if an X is important?
- 2) Compare the standard deviation of your dataset with the standard deviation from your Measurement Systems Analysis. The larger the standard deviation of your data is compared to the standard deviation from your MSA study, the greater the opportunity to find X's with p-values less than 0.05.
- 3) Draw a sketch of the relationship you believe exists between each X and the process output, Y. This will help you capture your team's theories as well as learnings from other analyses.
- 4) Draw X-Y scatterplots for each X. Do they match your predictions? Do you see any evidence of curvature? How much noise is there?
- 5) Run a correlation study between the Xs. If the correlations among Xs are low, the Xs are clean and the effects will separate. If the correlations among Xs are high, the Xs are tied together and you need to check your process knowledge as to which X makes most sense. A correlation between two Xs is high if the correlation coefficient (r) is greater than the threshold correlation coefficient (r_{threshold}). This is a rule of thumb for a 95% confidence level.



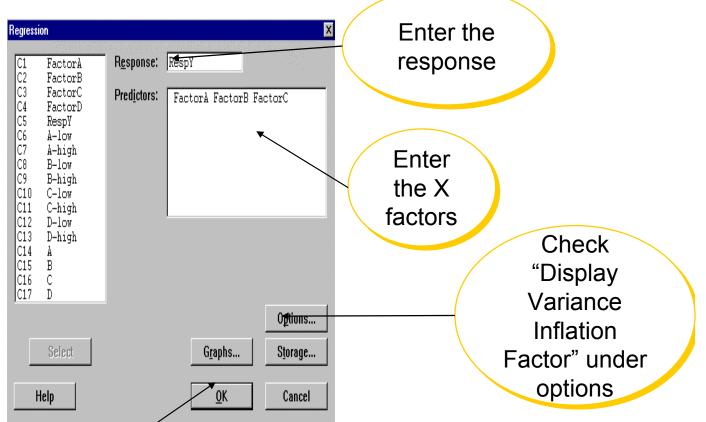
where N is the number of data points

Identify Variation Sources



Step 6: Run the Analysis





Select the residuals plot options Regression will be usually be an iterative process. Select all the X factors believed to be important and enter into the first analysis. Eliminate the insignificant terms one at a time and re-run the analysis. Of course, you'll need to complete the other analysis steps outlined on the next page as well.



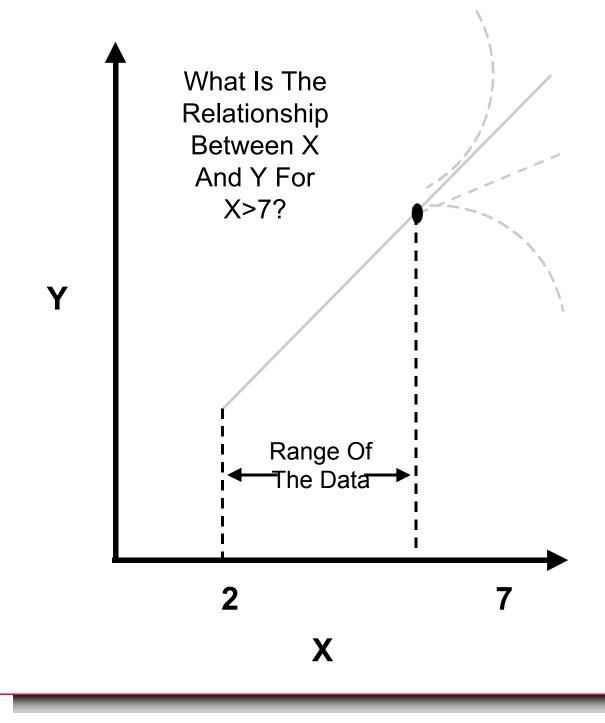
Regression: After the Analysis

Step

- 7) Is the X significant? Look for p-values < 0.05 or even < 0.10. Models with insignificant terms overfit the model. Remove the insignificant terms one at a time and systematically. *Note:* if an interaction or squared term for a factor is significant, you must keep the individual factor term.
- 8) Look at the residual plots. Do they indicate any problems with the analysis?
- 9) You are explaining as much variation as can be expected as long as the R-Sq(adj) % + Total %GRR add up between 90 and 100%. Compare the standard deviation of the residuals with the standard deviation of the measurement system (Standard Deviation--Total Gage R&R). The standard deviation of the residuals should not be lower than the standard deviation of the measurement system--check it with an F test, if necessary!
- **10)** Do a sanity check -- do the results make sense? Were there surprises? Did the results match your predictions?
- 11) Were there any outlier residuals? If you eliminate them and rerun the regression, do you see any improvement? *Note:* As a rule of thumb, only eliminate the residuals greater than 3 standard deviations from the mean. This should only be about 5% of the data.
- **12)** Rerun the analysis as needed for other Xs, or to include nonlinear terms.



Extrapolation Is Risky





General Linear Model



What if you don't have "balanced" data?

- •General Linear Model (GLM) is the tool to use.
- •GLM can handle "unbalanced" data data sets with **unequal observations per subgroup**.
- •Unbalanced data is often seen in historical or baseline data.

Example:

- 'Rot1' (C3) is a continuous response variable that is a believed to be a function of Oxygen and Temperature.
- Temperature (C1) is represented by two levels: 10 and 16
- Oxygen (C2) has 3 levels: 2, 6 and 10

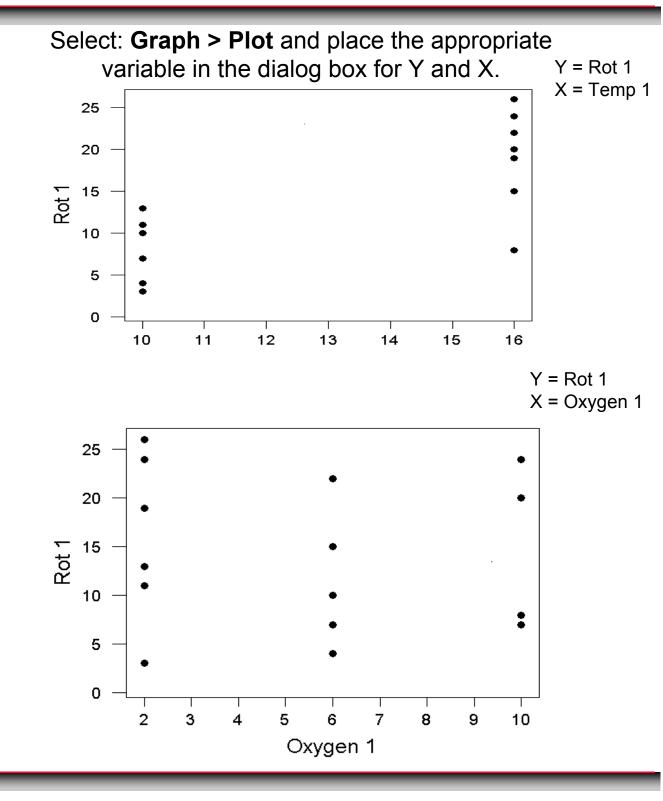
Here's the data set

				MINITAE	- ROT.MT	W - ID	atal
<u>F</u> ile	<u>E</u> dit <u>M</u> an	ip <u>C</u> alc <u>S</u>	<u>itat G</u> raph	E <u>d</u> itor	Window	<u>H</u> elp	Si <u>×</u> S
	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5		C6
t	Temp 1	Oxygen 1	Rot 1				
1	10	2	13				
2	10	2	11				
3	10	2	3				
4	10	6	10				
5	10	6	4				
6	10	6	7				
7	10	10	7				
8	10	10	*	$\overline{}$			
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10	16	2	26				
11	16	2	19			Mis	sing c
12	16	2	24				
13	16	6	15				
14	16	6	(*				
15	16	6	22				
16	16	10	20				
17	16	10	24				
18	16	10	8				
19							

		Temp = 10	Temp = 16
Why are these data "unbalanced"?	Oxygen = 2	n = 3	n = 3
Because there are	Oxygen = 6	n = 3	n = 2
unequal numbers of observations per cell:	Oxygen = 10	n = 1	n = 3



Graph the data first



Identify Variation Sources

The GLM analysis...

Stat>ANOVA>General Linear Model

Note: Since we have <u>un</u>-balanced data, we use the GLM analysis option of ANOVA.

<u>S</u> tat	<u>G</u> raph	E <u>d</u> itor	Y	Yindow	<u>H</u> elp	Si <u>x</u> Sigma
√ Fit <u>I</u>	ntercept					
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Reli	ability/S	urvival		<u>B</u> alan	ced AN	0VA
<u>M</u> ul	tivariate			Analys	sis of C	ovariance
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<u>T</u> ab	les		F	Ното	neneitv	of Variance
<u>N</u> on	paramet	rics		_	Effects	
<u>E</u> DA	i i				ctions F	
				Intera		104.1.

-	General Linear Model	
C1 Temp 1 C2 Oxygen 1 C3 Rot 1	Responses: 'Rot 1' Model: 'Temp 1' 'Oxygen 1' Covariates (optional):	Remember to use 'pipes' between 'Temp 1' and 'Oxygen 1' to include interactions
Select Help	Options <u>Gr</u> aphs <u>S</u> torage <u>O</u> K Cancel	

Remember to click on 'Graphs'' to create 'Residual vs. fits' graph



ANOVA Analysis in the Session window

General Linear Model

Factor Temp1 Oxygen1	Levels Val 2 3	ues 10 16 2 6	10			
Analysis	of Varianc	e for <u>R</u> ot1				>
Source Temp1 Oxygen1 Temp1*Ox Error Total	DF 1 2 ygen1 2 9 14	Seq SS 528.04 51.19 8.00 263.17 850.40	Adj SS 453.19 41.57 8.00 263.17	Adj MS 453.19 20.78 4.00 29.24	F 15.50 0.71 0.14	
Unusual Observations for Rot1						
01	D-+1	Eit CtD-	- Fit Desid			

Obs	Rot1	Fit	StDev Fit	Residual	St Resid
7	7.0000	7.0000	5.4075	0.0000	· * X
18	8.0000	17.3333	3.1220	-9.3333	-2.11R

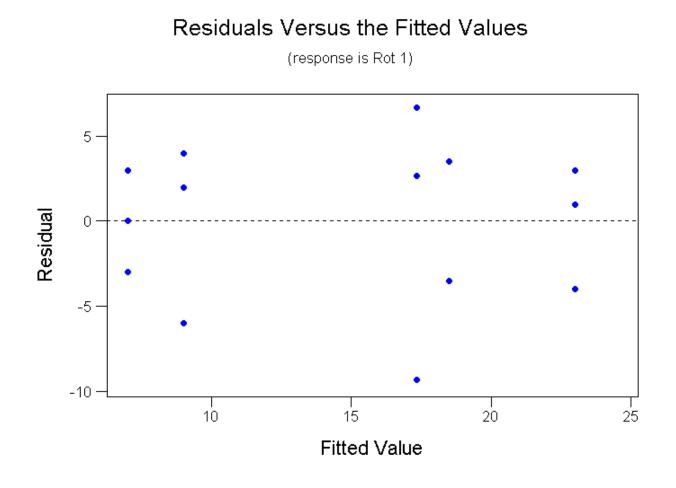
R denotes an observation with a large standardized residual X denotes an observation whose X value gives it large influence.

Interpretation:

(Look at the p-values for the significant factors)

- Temperature is significant, p< 0.05
- <u>Not</u> significant: Oxygen, and the interaction between Oxygen and Temperature, p > 0.05
- The Error term is large relative to the Total SS.
 Possibly search for more "X"s!
- If you get a Minitab error message which says rank deficiency, you do not have enough data to model the terms you have chosen. Try to eliminate terms or see MBB.





¥6)

There does not appear to be a pattern in the residuals - we have not gained additional process information from this graph.

Identify Variation Sources

Analyzing Messy Data Optional Example of GLM

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Perform multiple regression and / or GLM using the file messy1.mtw. The Y is thrust.

96)

Description Of Messy Data And It's Analysis Problems

Messy data is often historical data collected without any design or structure.

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- Messy data is sometimes called happenstance data.
- In many cases, messy data is difficult to analyze because of its lack of structure. For example, it will be unbalanced and often will have missing cells. The X's in the model may be correlated.
- A cell is each possible pair of data tag levels in your model.
 - Unbalanced means that the number of data points for each cell is unequal.
 - A missing cell means no data exists in that cell.
 - Multicollinearity means the X's are correlated.

96)

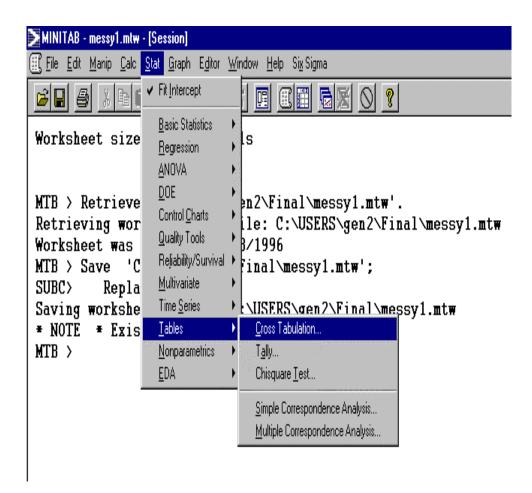
File messy1.mtw contains engine performance data collected from past records. It is historical data without any designed structure to it.

≥minita	MINITAB - messy1.mtw - [Data]						
🛗 <u>F</u> ile <u>E</u>	📅 File Edit Manip Calc Stat Graph Editor Window Help SixSigma						
6	<i>a</i> 1	<u>e</u> n -	▋-▋╽▖⋒	0 11 1			
	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	
Ļ	BMSN	CELL	COWLSN	FN	Fuelburn	À41	
1	2	51	7	34813.9	1942.00	62.6380	
2	16	51	17	34639.4	1942.00	62.5076	
3	2	51	7	34960.3	1921.00	62.8714	
4	16	51	17	34692.4	1935.00	62.5176	
5	2	51	7	34723.3	1938.00	62.6240	
6	16	51	17	35090.4	1931.00	62.6420	
7	16	51	17	34910.5	1930.00	62.5646	
8	2	51	7	34626.4	1941.00	62.5224	
9	16	51	17	34312.3	1960.00	62.8272	
10	2	51	17	34832.2	1940.00	62.5126	
11	16	51	7	34327.6	1946.00	62.9264	

BMSN: Bell Mouth Serial Number Cell: Test Cell COWLSN: Cowl Serial Number FN: Engine Thrust

Use the cross tabulation command to view the structure of the data.

%



We will analyze the effects of bell mouth and cowl on fuelburn. Load in the variables for bell mouth and cowl.

96)

Cross Tabulation		×
C1 BMSN C2 CELL C3 COWLSN C4 FN C5 Fuelburn C6 A41	Classification variables BMSN COVLSN	:
	Display I Cou <u>n</u> ts I Row percents I Column percents I Total percents	 Chisquare <u>analysis</u> Show count Above and <u>expected count</u> Above and std. residual
	☐ <u>F</u> requencies are in:	
Select Help	Summaries	<u>O</u> K Cancel

For now just check the counts under Display.

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Rows: BMSN Columns: COWLSN

	3	7	12	17	All
1	0	0	3	0	3
2	15	47	3	15	80
4	0	2	3	0	5
6	9	3	0	0	12
16	41	62	29	8	140
All	65	114	38	23	240

Is the data balanced? Are there missing cells?

Are the X's correlated? To find out, run a correlation analysis on the continuous X's.

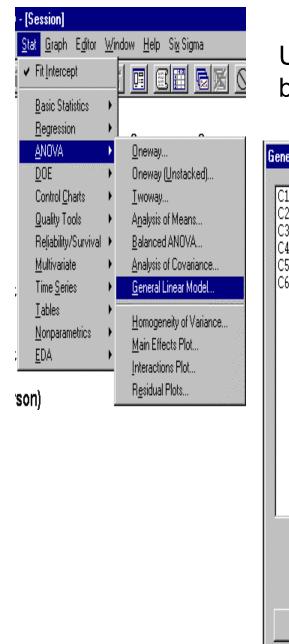
96)

🔀 MINITAB - messy1.mtw	- [Session]	
∰ <u>F</u> ile <u>E</u> dit <u>M</u> anip <u>C</u> alc	<u>Stat</u> <u>G</u> raph E <u>d</u> itor <u>W</u> indow <u>H</u> elp Si <u>x</u> Sigma	
B B X B C	✓ Fit Intercept	Correlation
6 12 16 140 N= 240 MTB > Table 'B SUBC> Counts Tabulated Statistic	ANOVA 1-Sample z ANOVA 1-Sample t DOE 2-Sample t Control Charts Correlation Quality Tools Coverlation Reliability/Survival Coverlation	C1 EMSN C2 CELL C3 COWLSN C4 FN C5 Fuelburn C6 A41
		□ <u>S</u> tore matrix
		Select
		Help <u>O</u> K Cancel

Correlations (Pearson)				
Fuelburn	FN -0.246	Fuelburn		
A41	-0.035	-0.108		

96)

The correlation coefficient between Fuelburn and A41 is -0.108. This is a low value indicating collinearity is not a problem for this analysis. High values of correlation, > 0.9, may cause a problem.



Using GLM, analyze the effect of bell mouth and cowl on fuel burn.

96)

General Linear Model		Х
C1 BMSN C2 CELL C3 COWLSN C4 FN C5 Fuelburn C6 A41	Responses: Fuelburn Model: Image: Coveriates (optional): Covariates (optional): Image: Coveriates (optional):	
Select Help	<u>M</u> ANOVA Options <u>Gr</u> aphs <u>S</u> torage <u>O</u> K Cancel	

Identify Variation Sources

General Linear Model
Factor Levels Values BMSN 5 1 2 4 6 16 COWLSN 4 3 7 12 17
Analysis of Variance for Fuelburn
Source DF Seq SS Adj SS Adj MS F P BMSN 4 425.3 820.6 205.2 1.27 0.282 COWLSN 3 1622.0 1622.0 540.7 3.35 0.020 Error 232 37468.5 37468.5 161.5 Total 239 39515.8
Unusual Observations for Fuelburn
Obs Fuelburn Fit StDev Fit Residual St Resid 29 2006.00 1928.98 1.44 77.02 6.10R 150 1906.00 1931.18 1.74 -25.18 -2.00R

Æ

What are your conclusions?

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Even when the correlation between the X's is small, they are still not orthogonal (independent).

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- Therefore, GLM uses the adjusted sum of squares for its hypothesis testing. The pvalues come from using the adjusted mean squares.
- The adjusted sum of squares assumes that X was entered last in the model. Without orthogonality, the order in which the X's are entered changes the sequential sum of squares.
- This was covered in the Analyze phase.

Do the sequential sum of squares add to the total?

%

- Note that the sequential sum of squares depend on the order in which the X's were entered into the model.
- Do the adjusted sum of squares add to the total?
- What are the implications of this to estimating the percent contribution of the X's?

Analysis Using GLM With Interaction

96)

Suppose you want to investigate the interaction between bell mouth and cowl. Include the interaction in the model window.

General	Linear Model		Х		
C1 C2	BMSN CELL	Responses: Fuelburn	1		
C1 C2 C3 C4 C5 C6	COWLSN FN	Mo <u>d</u> el:			
C5 C6	Fuelburn À41	BMSN COWISN BMSN*COWISN			
			1		
dž		<u>C</u> ovariates (optional):			
2					
		<u>M</u> ANOVA			
	Select	Options <u>Gr</u> aphs <u>S</u> torage			
ŀ	lelp	<u>O</u> K Cancel			

Analysis Using GLM With Interaction

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General Linear Model Factor Levels Values BMSN 5 1 2 4 6 16 COWLSN 4 3 7 12 17 Analysis of Variance for Fuelburn Source Model DF Reduced DF Seq SS BMSN 4 4 425.33 COWLSN 3 3 1622.00 BMSN*COWLSN 12 5+ 335.64 Error 220 227 37132.83 Total 239 239 39515.80 + Rank deficiency due to empty cells, unbalanced nesting, collinearity, or an undeclared covariate. No storage of results or further analysis will be done.	
BMSN5124616COWLSN4371217Analysis of Variance for FuelburnSourceModel DFReduced DFSeq SSBMSN44425.33COWLSN331622.00BMSN*COWLSN125+335.64Error22022737132.83Total23923939515.80+ Rank deficiency due to empty cells, unbalanced nesting, collinearity, or an undeclared covariate.	General Linear Model
COWLSN 4 3 7 12 17 Analysis of Variance for Fuelburn Source Model DF Reduced DF Seq SS BMSN 4 4 425.33 COWLSN 3 3 1622.00 BMSN*COWLSN 12 5+ 335.64 Error 220 227 37132.83 Total 239 239 39515.80 + Rank deficiency due to empty cells, unbalanced nesting, collinearity, or an undeclared covariate.	
Analysis of Variance for FuelburnSourceModel DFReduced DFSeq SSBMSN44425.33COWLSN331622.00BMSN*COWLSN125+335.64Error22022737132.83Total23923939515.80+ Rank deficiency due to empty cells, unbalanced nesting, collinearity, or an undeclared covariate.	
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Error22022737132.83Total23923939515.80+ Rank deficiency due to empty cells, unbalanced nesting, collinearity, or an undeclared covariate.	COWLSN 3 3 1622.00
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+ Rank deficiency due to empty cells, unbalanced nesting, collinearity, or an undeclared covariate.	Error 220 227 37132.83
collinearity, or an undeclared covariate.	Total 239 239 39515.80
	collinearity, or an undeclared covariate.
The rank deficiency means it	The manufactor for the second of the

The rank deficiency means it was unable to estimate the means for all the levels of each X.

Based on our previous investigation of the data, what do you think is the reason for the rank deficiency?

Exercise

- Use file messy2.mtw.
- Analyze the effect of bell mouth and cowl on engine thrust.

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- First inspect the data using the cross tabulation command.
- Analyze using GLM with and without the interaction.

Key Learnings

Unbalanced data ensures the X's are correlated forcing the use of adjusted sum of squares.

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- Estimation of the percent contribution of the X's to total variability is risky.
- Empty cells may make estimation of the level means and interactions impossible.
 - This is also true when there is too little data for the number of levels for which the means must be estimated.

Other Concerns In Analyzing Messy Data

- You might only have data for a few X's none of which may be a vital X. Much of what is relevant isn't even recorded.
- Collected over a long period of time, the important X's could actually change. Standards, procedures, materials, and measurements change over time.
- For the given time period over which the data was collected, the range in the X's may be so small that the effect is not detectable.
- X's often change together confounding their effects.
- A lurking variable, confounded with an X may produce a nonsense correlation. We need X and Y to be causally correlated.
- The process may no longer be operating under the conditions that existed when the data was collected.

All of this should help one appreciate the power of designed experiments.

Summary of Hypothesis Tests

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Run Charts - H_{o} : There are no trends, cluster, mixtures, or oscillations H_a: There exist trends, clusters, mixtures, or oscillations Normality Test H_o: Data is normally distributed — H_a: Data is not normally distributed 1-sample t-test $- H_0$: $\mu = 50$ H_a : $\mu \neq 50$ 2-sample t-test $-H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ H_{a} : $\mu_{1} \neq \mu_{2}$ - $H_o: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4$ $H_a:$ At least one μ is different from the others. Homogeneity of Variance $-H_0:\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ $H_a: \sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$

Identify Variation Sources

Summary of Hypothesis Tests

Chi-Square Goodness of Fit Test

*H*_o: The hypothesized distribution is a good fit of the data

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H_a: The hypothesized distribution is not a good fit of the data

Chi-Square Test of Independence

- H_o : A factor has no effect on the output
- H_a : A factor has an effect on the output
- Linear Regression
 - H_o: The model is not a significant predictor of the response
 - H_a : The model is a significant predictor of the response

Take Aways—Hypothesis Testing: Continuous Y; Continuous X

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- Scatter Plots: Visual tool to establish a cause and effect relationship between the inputs and the outputs.
- Simple Linear Regression
 - Statistical technique used to investigate the relationship between 2 variables
 - H_a: The factor is a significant predictor of the response
 - R²: percent of variation explained by your model. In general, the closer R² is to 1, the better the fit of the model
 - Prediction Intervals: 95% of data within the population falls within this band
 - Confidence Intervals: There exists a 95% chance that the true line of the population lies within the band
 - Prediction Interval: Can be used in statistical tolerancing
 - To determine where to set the factor levels to remain within the USL and LSL



Summary: Process & Population Sampling

Situation	Purpose/Aim	Considerations	Sample Size	Approaches
Sampling from a process	Take action or predict the future In control? Capable? Improve	 Where you sample Frequency Grouping Representative Cost 	 Use guidelines appropriate to analysis tool selected or use population methods on stable processes Control charts 	 Subgroup sampling Systematic sampling
Sampling from a large population	Describe or quantify characteristics	 (s = Standard deviation) Confidence level (95%) Representative Cost 		 Random sampling Stratified random sampling Systematic sampling
Note: Here,				

Note: Some situations are a hybrid of the two situations

Summary: Sample Size Formulas Values In The Formula

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Sample Size Formulas

Sample size for estimating averages

Sample size for estimating proportions

$$n = \left(\frac{Z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \sigma}{\Lambda}\right)^2$$

$$n = \left(\frac{Z_{\alpha/2}}{\Delta}\right)^2 P_B(1-P_B)$$

Sample Size Depends On	Δ Where You Get It From	Effects On Sample Size (n)	Example
1. Z _{α/2}	Where α is 1 – confidence level and $Z_{\alpha/2}$ is the Z-score representing the end point of the interval. For $\alpha = .05$, $Z_{\alpha/2} = 1.96$ For $\alpha = .01$, $Z_{\alpha/2} = 2.58$	As α decreases, $Z_{\alpha/2}$ increases and sample size increases.	$\widehat{\sigma} = 10, \Delta = 1$ Case 1: $\alpha = .01$ $\Rightarrow 99\%, Z_{\alpha/2} = 2.58$ $n = \left(\frac{2.58 \cdot 10}{1}\right) = 666$ Case 2: $\alpha = .05$ $\Rightarrow 95\% \text{ precision}$ $n = \left(\frac{1.96 \cdot 10}{1}\right)^2 = 384$
2. ∆ (Delta)	Desired precision of the estimate or half-width of the confidence interval. Estimate precision based on business considerations, sample size limitations, or scale of scrutiny (measurement resolution).	Δ decreases as you require more precision (a smaller confidence interval). As Δ gets smaller, sample size increases.	$\hat{\sigma} = 10, \ Z_{\alpha/2} = 1.96$ Case 1: $\Delta = 1$ $n = \left(\frac{1.96 \cdot 10}{1}\right)^2 = 384$ Case 2: $\Delta = 1/2$ n = = 1537
3. σ (Sigma)	The standard deviation of the population you are measuring. Estimate σ by calculating the standard deviation of a small sample of data, using control charts, or taking 1/6 the plausible range of data.	As σ increases, sample size increases	$\Delta = 1, \frac{Z_{\alpha/2}}{G} = 1.96$ Case 1: $\sigma = 5$ $n = \left(\frac{1.96 \cdot 5}{1}\right)^2 = 96$ Case 2: $\sigma = 10$ $n = \left(\frac{1.96 \cdot 10}{1}\right)^2 = 384$
4. P _B (Proportion defective)	P_{B} ranges from 0 to 1. It is the proportion of defectives (or alternately, non-defectives) in the population. Estimate P_{B} by taking a small sample of data, using control charts or setting P_{B} = .5 as a worst case.	Sample size is highest when $P_B = .5$. As P_B decreases or increases from $P_B = .5$ sample size decreases.	$\Delta = .05, \frac{Z_{\alpha/2}}{\alpha_{2}} = 1.96$ Case 1: p = .5 n = $\left(\frac{1.96}{.05}\right)^2$ (.5)(.5) = 384 Case 2: p = .25 n = $\left(\frac{1.96}{.05}\right)^2$ (.25)(.75) = 288



A fishbone diagram is a brainstorming tool

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- identify Xs that may impact the Y that is important in a project
- provides a visual display of all possible causes of a specific problem

A **Pareto chart** is used to separate the vital few from the trivial many in a process to determine where to focus improvement efforts.

- displays the frequency of an output occurring by any category you may choose
- shows the categories in order of decreasing frequency

Take Aways - Step 6

- Samples can be used to make inferences about the populations from which they are drawn.
 - In general, it is very difficult to measure the entire population, so data may be collected from a **representative sample**.

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- If the sample data is truly representative of the population, statistical inferences may be made about the entire population.
- A hypothesis is a conjecture about one or more parameters of a population.
 - A Null Hypothesis (H_o) states that there is no significant difference between processes or products (status quo).
 - An Alternate Hypothesis (H_a) states that there is a significant difference between processes or products.

Take Aways - Step 6

There is **risk** involved in hypothesis testing. We associate this risk with the probability of making a wrong decision.

- Type I (alpha) error is rejecting H_o when H_o is true.
 - accepting that a change has taken place when one has not
- Type II (beta) error is accepting H_o when H_a is true.
 - accepting that the process has not changed when it really has changed
- It is not possible to make both a Type I (alpha) error and a Type II (beta) error simultaneously.
- For the probability of making a Type I error we set the limit Alpha usually at 0.05. For the probability of making a Type II error we set the limit Beta usually at 0.10. The quantity (1-Beta) is called Power of the Test.

McDonald's Case Study Optional Example

Measure Select CTQ Characteristic

You are the McDonald's Green Belt Project team for this area. In an effort to increase customer satisfaction and capture more market share, you performed customer surveys and a QFD analysis. Through your thorough analysis, you found service time to be a major CTQ. You have also broken service time into two parts:

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- 1. wait time in line
- 2. order time (time from when you begin to order your food until you are given your food and change)



Your first efforts will focus on order time. You have a hunch that order time may differ for drive-thru versus counter service and for ordering by numbers versus off menu. Two classes of Six Sigma trainees were sent out for lunch, half to the Schenectady (Union St.) McDonald's and half to Clifton Park. About half of the people were asked to order at the drivethru and half at the counter. The following data was collected: Order Time [seconds]

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Location[1 Schenectady, 2 Clifton Park]Service[1 Drive-thru, 2 Counter]Order Method[1 By Number, 2 Off Menu]Time of Day[hh.mm]

Measure Define Performance Standards

To determine what the performance standard should be, you surveyed 100 customers, asking them: "To ensure repeat business, how much time are you willing to spend from when you start to order your food until you are given your food and change?" Based on these results, you determined the performance standard for order time to be 90 seconds.

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In your analysis of the McDonald's data, you will

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- compute the current order time process capability
- determine which factors (location, service, order method) have a significant affect on the output (order time)

Instructions

Minitab file: Mcd.mtw contains the McDonald's data.

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- On the following page you will find a list of all the tools we have covered. You will use these tools to perform the analysis.
- Before starting the actual analysis of the McDonald's data, take some time as a team to determine the objective, hypotheses (when applicable) and potential conclusions for each of the statistical tools.
- At the end of this section, you will find questions about the McDonald's data.
- Answer the questions assigned to your team.
- Hint for comparing the data subgrouped by 1 factor: you will first have to sort the data by time of day, and then unstack it. For instance, unstacking by location will result in two columns, one for Schenectady and one for Clifton Park. This enables you to do the Run Charts and Histograms.
- Present your findings with a Power Point Presentation.

Summary of Statistical Tools

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Tools	Objective	Hypothesis	Conclusion
Histogram			
Dotplot			
Box Plot			
Run Chart			
(Sample Size $= 1$)			
Capability Analysis			
Homogeneity of Variance			
ANOVA			
2-Sample t			
(Compare Locations)			
2-Sample t			
(Compare Order Method)			
2-Sample t			
(Compare Service)			

Questions for Complete Data Set (All Teams)

MINITAB FILE Mcd.mtw: explanation of subscripts

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	Location	Service	Method
1	Schenectady	Drive Thru	By Number
2	Clifton Park	Counter	Off menu

1. Visualize the distribution of the data. Is the data normally distributed?

Descriptive Statistics (Graphical Summary) \Rightarrow Histogram, Boxplot, Anderson-Darling

2. What is the order completion process capability, given an upper specification limit of 90 seconds? (leave LSL blank, subgroup rationally)

Six Sigma Process Report

Questions for the Data Subgrouped by 1 factor

Teams 1, 4: Schenectady vs. Clifton Park

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- *Teams 2, 5: Drive Thru vs. Counter*
- Teams 3, 6: Number vs. Off Menu
- **3.** Visualize the distribution of the data. Histogram
- **4.** Visualize differences between average service time and between service time variation.

Boxplot

- **5.** Are there any non-random patterns over time?
- 6. Is the data normally distributed? Normality Test ⇒ Anderson-Darling
- **7.** Do the two groups have the same consistency in speed of service?

Homogeneity of Variance

8. Is there a statistically significant difference between the average speed of service?

2-sample t-test

Questions for Comparing All 8 Subgroups

9. Visualize differences between average service time and between service time variation.

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10. Is the data normally distributed?

Anderson-Darling

11. Do the eight groups have the same consistency in speed of service?

Homogeneity of Variance

12. As a corporation, McDonald's has a goal to provide, on average, the same speed of service to customers regardless of location, service type or order method. Based on this sample, does McDonald's reach that goal?

ANOVA

Bonus Question

13. Given your preference for a combination of service type and order method, would you go to the Schenectady or Clifton Park McDonald's?

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2-sample t-test

Teams 1, 5: Teams 2, 6: Teams 3: Teams 4: Drive Thru, By Number Drive Thru, Off Menu Counter, By Number Counter, Off Menu

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Introduction to Improve

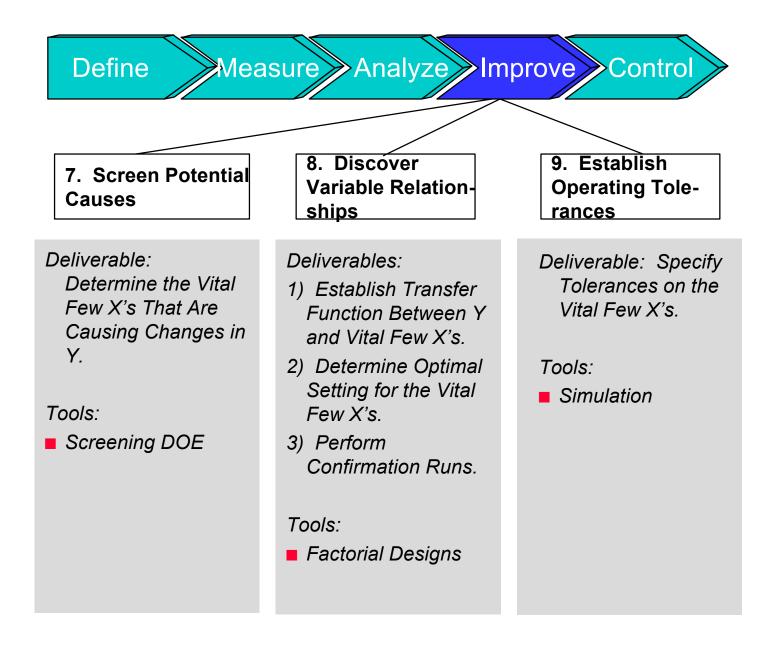


The 12 Step Process

Step Define	Description	Focus	Tools	SSQC Deliverables
A B C	Identify Project CTQs Develop Team Charter Define Process Map			Project CTQs (1) Approved Charter (2) High Level Process Map (3)
Measur 1	e Select CTQ	Y	Customer, QFD, FMEA	Project Y (4)
·	Characteristics	•		
2	Define Performance Standards	Y	Customer, Blueprints	Performance Standard for Project Y (5)
3	Measurement System Analysis	Y	Continuous Gage R&R, Test/Retest, Attribute R&R	Data Collection Plan & MSA (6), Data for Project Y (7)
Analyze)			
4	Establish Process Capability	Y	Capability Indices	Process Capability for Project Y (8)
5	Define Performance Objectives	Y	Team, Benchmarking	Improvement Goal for Project Y (9)
6	Identify Variation Sources	Х	Process Analysis, Graphical Analysis, Hypothesis Tests	Prioritized List of all Xs (10)
Improve)			
7 8	Screen Potential Causes Discover Variable Relationships	X X	DOE-Screening Factorial Designs	List of Vital Few Xs (11) Proposed Solution (13)
9	Establish Operating Tolerances	Υ, Χ	Simulation	Piloted Solution (14)
Control				
10	Define & Validate Measurement System on X's in Actual Application	Υ, Χ	Continuous Gage R&R, Test/Retest, Attribute R&R	MSA
11	Determine Process Capability	Υ, Χ	Capability Indices	Process Capability Y, X (15)
12	Implement Process Control	Х	Control Charts, Mistake Proof, FMEA	Sustained Solution (15), Documentation (16),







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Questions Answered by the Improve Phase

- Why is the improve phase important?
- What is the link between improve and my project?
- What methods for improvement exist?
- Examples of methods used for improvement.

Key Points

Develop a strategy for improvement.

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- Characterize and examine the Xs.
- For improvement, choose the correct tool.
- Consider Improvement methods other than Design of Experiments (DOE).
- Pilot the solution.
- For more advanced problems use DOE.

Improve Phase Objectives

- To develop a **proposed solution**:
 - identify an improvement strategy
 - experiment to determine a solution
 - quantify financial opportunities
- To **confirm** that the proposed solution will meet or exceed the quality **improvement goals:**
 - a *pilot*: includes one or more small-scale tests of the solution in a real world business environment

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- to statistically confirm that an improvement exists (hypothesis tests)
- To identify resources required for a successful full-scale implementation of the solution.
- To plan and execute full scale implementation including training, support, technology rollout, process and documentation changes.

Improvement Strategy

- Develop an improvement strategy to provide a framework for developing a solution systematically and efficiently.
- Strategy will depend upon:
 - the nature of your improvement project
 - your current level of process knowledge and

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- *the availability and characterization of the data.*
- Collect data about your process and alternate solutions so you can make informed decisions about how to improve your process.



Improvement Strategy

- Incorporate different combinations of statistical and quality tools to refine your solution and attain the required process performance.
- Your improvement strategy may involve:
 - Optimizing process performance
 - develop a mathematical model for your process by running a design of experiment (DOE) or complete a regression analysis
 - determine the best settings for each X
 - Developing and testing several alternatives by running trial experiments to find the solution that best meets your improvement goals



Improvement Goal

The goal of a proposed solution: to understand and act on the relationship Y = f(X)

- Relate the vital Xs to the Y.
- Predict the magnitude of the effect of the vital Xs on the Y.
- State the direction and magnitude of change in vital Xs to accomplish a change in the Y.
- Plan for and implement identified changes in the vital Xs based on the data.

Data Driven Analysis & Improvement



Characterization of Xs

- Operating parameters
 - Xs that can be set at multiple levels to study how they affect the process Y
 - changes in their settings impact the Y directly and influence variation
 - may be continuous and/or discrete
 e.g. heat treatment temperature, cycle time, number of people answering phones
- Critical Elements
 - Xs that are independent alternatives
 - Xs that are not necessarily measurable on a specific scale, but have an affect on the process
 - e.g. alternative work flow sequences, process standardization, practical solution alternatives



Group Discussion: Identify Vital Xs for a Given Y

What are key drivers, in both magnitude and direction, of:

- RCT sale closure rate?
- monthly phone expenses?
- turbine efficiency?
- drawing accuracy at initial release?
- personnel retention rates?
- past-due receivables?
- *training effectiveness?*

How can we characterize these Xs?

- operating parameters
- critical elements

How would we measure the Xs?



Worksheet: Experimenting to Determine a Solution

If your Xs are	Your improvement strategy is
Operating parameters (you need to know how they are related to each other and to the Y to develop an appropriate solution)	 Develop a mathematical model or Determine the best configuration or combination of Xs
Critical elements, (you need to develop and test several practical alternatives to determine which is the best solution)	 Optimize process flow issues or Standardize the process or Develop a practical solution.

Choose the Appropriate Tool

Improve Tools

Basic

- Fishbone
- Box Plot
- Linear Regression
- Hypothesis Tests (z-test, t-test, ANOVA, chisquare, HOV)
- Process Map
- Time Order Plots
- Mistake Proofing
- Multi-vari plot*
- Force Fields*
- Kaizen*

Problem Sophistication High Low complexity risk business impact data availability

Match Tool to Problem

Intermediate

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- DOE (full, fractional DOE)
- Multi-variate Regression*

Advanced

- Response Surface*
- Taguchi (Inner/Outer Array)*



Selecting the Appropriate Tool

- For many projects, we may arrive at an acceptable solution using basic tools already developed in the Measure and Analyze phases or by:
 - optimizing process flow
 - work-outs, benchmarking, best practices, and brainstorming
 - generate ideas for alternatives from existing data and process knowledge
 - trial experiments or simulation
 - standardizing the process
 - mistake proofing
- If more precision is necessary, intermediate or more advanced tools may be used. The majority of this section will focus on the intermediate tools.

Example: Reducing Cycle Time

A team worked to reduce the time required to provide an answer to a customer's question in the proposal process.

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Three different people each use a different process to respond to the customer. When all three processes were studied, the following was discovered:

- Each process contained a minimum of 5 nonvalue-added steps that made up 70% of the total processing time.
- Regardless of risk level or customer, all questions were handled equally.
- Incomplete information requests were maintained in the system until the final stages of the proposal process.



Cycle Time Example Improvement Solution

- The team worked with the experts to determine alternate processing paths to reduce the nonvalue-added paperwork handoffs and documentation requests.
- They developed an alternate fast-track path for low-risk questions.
- Incomplete information requests were forwarded to the customer for completion.

Result: Cycle Time Reduced



Example: Reducing Cost

- The telephone expenses have been too high. GE currently pays \$35 per phone line. A project was initiated to identify the key factors that drive up telephone costs. The goal is to reduce the overall telephone expense (Y) to GE.
- A fishbone has identified two vital Xs that impact cost (Y)
 - $-X_1 = number of lines in use$
 - $-X_2$ = number of lines not in use
- Hence the relation: $Y = 35 (X_1 + X_2)$
- Improvement: Design a new process to identify lines not in use and turn off phone line.

Example: Reducing Delivery Time

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Problem: There is currently a slow delivery time on small package domestic shipments.

- Currently our company is using one vendor, vendor A.
- Analysis has shown that vendor, time of year, and distance shipped are vital Xs.
- We run an experiment with a potential second vendor, vendor B. We go to a neighboring business who employs Vendor B and collect information on delivery time (in days) under similar conditions of time and distance.

How can we test to see if Vendor A is better than Vendor B?

Homogeneity of Variance

Perform a homogeneity of variance test on the standard deviations to see if there is a statistically significant difference between the variation in delivery times of Vendor A vs. Vendor B.

 $H_{o}: s_{A}^{2} = s_{B}^{2}$ $H_a: s_A^{2} \cdot s_B^{2}$

		at Graph Edi	tor <u>W</u> indow <u>H</u>	lelo Siv Sigma					-	8 ×
	iand <u>Carc</u>	<u>Basic Statistics</u> <u>Regression</u>					S ?			
Retriev	et size: ing work et was s	ANDVA DOE Control Charts Quality Tools Reliability/Surv Multivariate Time Series Tables Nonparametric EDA Power and Sar	rival • s •	One-way One-way (Unstacke I wo-way Analysis of Means Balanced ANOVA General Linear Moo Fully Nested ANOV. Homogeneity of Var Interval Plot Main Effects Plot Interactions Plot	lel A	. MTW			_	
Vendors	.MTW ***									
Vendors	.MTW *** C1	CZ		C4	CS	C6	C7	C8	_ C9	
		C2 Vendor B	C3 Time A&B	C4 Vend A & B	ය	C6	C7	C8		
Vendors	C1				ය	C6	C7	C8		
Vendors	C1 Vendor A	Vendor B	Time A&B	Vend A & B	රූ	C6	C7	C8		
Vendors ↓ 1	C1 Vendor A 5.3	Vendor B 4.2	Time A&B 5.3	Vend A & B	C5	C6	C7	C8		
Vendors ↓ 1 2	C1 Vendor A 5.3 4.5	Vendor B 4.2 3.6	Time A&B 5.3 4.5	Vend A & B 1 1	C5	C6	C7	C3		
↓ 1 2 3	C1 Vendor A 5.3 4.5 6.7	Vendor B 4.2 3.6 5.1	Time A&B 5.3 4.5 6.7	Vend A & B 1 1 1	<u>C5</u>	C6	C7	C8		
↓ 1 2 3 4	C1 Vendor A 5.3 4.5 6.7 6.5	Vendor B 4.2 3.6 5.1 4.8	Time A&B 5.3 4.5 6.7 6.5	Vend A & B 1 1 1 1	C5	C6	C7	C8		
↓ 1 2 3 4 5	C1 Vendor A 5.3 4.5 6.7 6.5 4.6	Vendor B 4.2 3.6 5.1 4.8 5.3	Time A&B 5.3 4.5 6.7 6.5 4.6	Vend A & B 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	C5	C6	C7	C8		
↓ 1 2 3 4 5 6	C1 Vendor A 5.3 4.5 6.7 6.5 4.6 4.6	Vendor B 4.2 3.6 5.1 4.8 5.3 4.3	Time A&B 5.3 4.5 6.7 6.5 4.6 4.6	Vend A & B 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	C5	C6	C7	C8		

MINITAB FILE: Vendors.mtw

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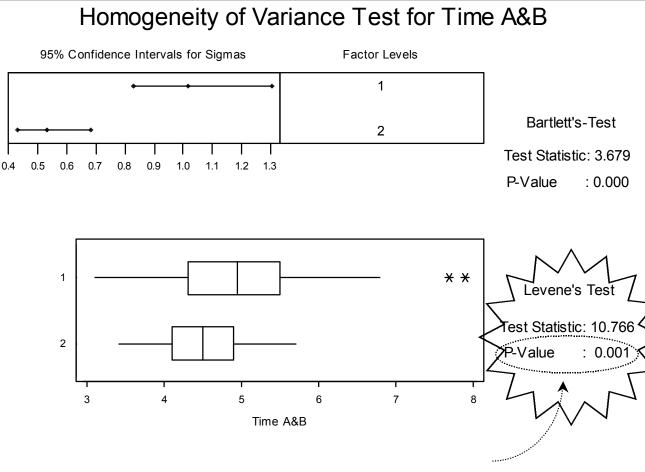


Homogeneity of Variance

Homogeneity of Variance T	est	×
C1 Vendor A C2 Vendor B C3 Time A&B C4 Vend A & B	Response: Time A&B'	
C4 Vend A & B	Factors: 'Vend & & B'	×
	Confidence level: 95.0	
	<u>T</u> itle:	
Palaat		Starage
Select		<u>S</u> torage
Help	<u>0</u> K	Cancel



Homogeneity of Variance



p < .05 implies that we accept the alternative hypothesis. H_a : $\sigma_A^{2} \sigma_B^2$

Vendor A and Vendor B have different variances.

Vendor Example: Two sample t-test

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Perform a 2 sample t-test on the means to see if there is a statistically significant difference between delivery times of Vendor A vs. Vendor B.

 $H_o: \mathbf{m}_A = \mathbf{m}_B$ $H_a: \mathbf{m}_A \neq \mathbf{m}_B$

MINITAB FILE: Vendors.mtw

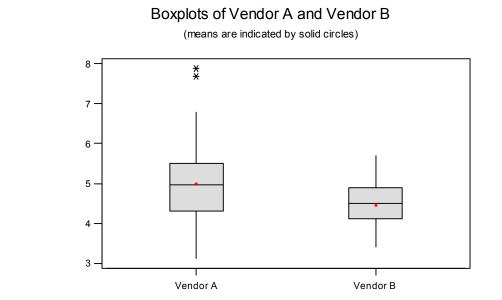
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↓ ↓ 1 2 3	C1 Vendor A 5.3 4.5 6.7	Vendor B 4.2 3.6 5.1	Time A&B 5.3 4.5 6.7	Vend A & B 1 1 1	C5	C6		C8	1
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Two sample t-test

	- O Samplea in one column
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Data Analysis



Two sample T for Vendor A vs Vendor BNMeanStDevSE MeanVendor A 504.991.010.14Vendor B 504.4580.5290.075

95% CI for mu Vendor A - mu Vendor B: (0.21, 0.854) T-Test mu Vendor A = mu Vendor B (vs not =): T = 3.29 P = 0.0015 DF = 73

Accept the alternative hypothesis: H_a : m_A ¹ m_B

Which vendor is better?

MINITAB FILE: Vendors.mtw

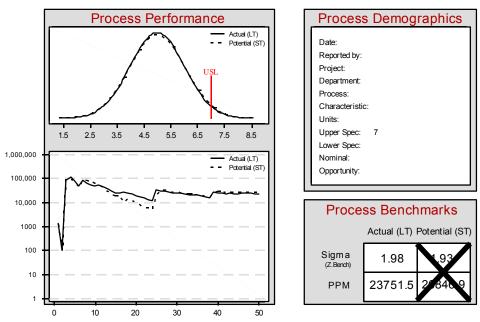
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				Capability Analysis (Binomial) Capability Analysis (Poisson)					▼ //	
Vendors.	MTW ***			Six Sigma Product						JX
	C1	C2				C6	C7	C8	C9	
↓	Vendor A	Vendor B	Time A&	<u>Gage Run Chart</u> Gage <u>L</u> inearity Stu	du -					
1	5.3	4.2	5	Gage R&R Study	-					
2	4.5	3.6	4	Multi-Vari Chart						
3	6.7	5.1	6	Symmetry Plot						
4	6.5	4.8	6 .0							
5	4.6	5.3	4.6	1						
6	4.6	4.3	4.6	1						
7	6.8	3.8	6.8	1						
8	50	19	50	1					1	
	,									
Produce six pr	ocess capability	reports								

Six Sigma Process Report		×
	Data are arranged as	<u>R</u> eports
	• Single column: Vendor A	Demographics
	Subgroup size: 1	Demographics
	(use a constant or an IN column)	2
	○ Su <u>b</u> groups across rows of:	
	Lower spec:	
	Upper spec: 7	
	Target: (optional)	
Select		<u>о</u> к
Help		Cancel
		•

Note: for a subgroup size of 1, short term values on the process report are invalid since there is not variation within groups.

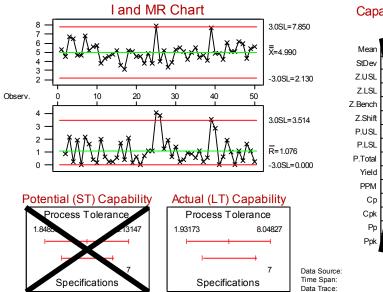
The upper specification limit is 7 days.



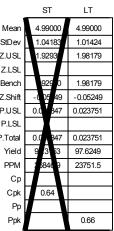


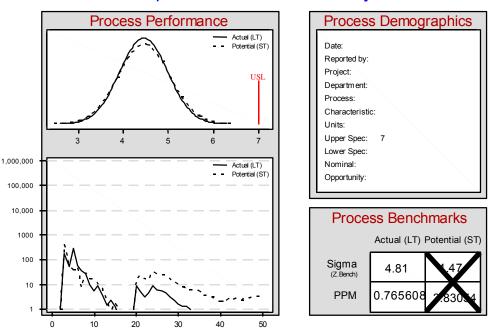
Report 1: Executive Summary

Report 2: Process Capability for Vendor A



Capability Indices

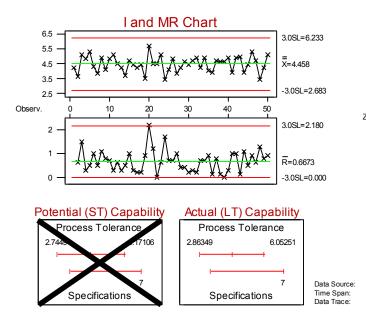




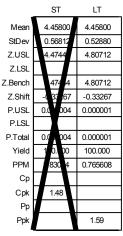
Report 1: Executive Summary

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Report 2: Process Capability for Vendor B



Capability Indices



Taking Action

- Based on data, what is our conclusion?
- Switch vendors! Vendor B is better.
 - Vendor B has less variation in service time, a lower mean service time, and a higher process capability

(H)

- Need to consider implications:
 - Is the vendor qualified?
 - Are there EHS issues?
 - Are there ISO issues?
 - Impact on other processes?
 - Impact on cost?
- Pilot to verify improvement.

The Pilot

Pilot: a process improvement that you will test on a small scale in a real business environment.

(%)

- The Pilot objective is to collect data from the test site to:
 - confirm that your proposed solution will achieve the targeted performance (eg. increasing production or reducing defects)
 - to identify any potential implementation problems (technology, training, etc.) prior to full scale implementation

Why Pilot?

To better understand the effects of your solution and plan for a successful full-scale implementation.

E)

- To release an early version of your solution to a particular market segment that has an urgent need for the change.
- To lower your risk of failing to meet improvement goals when the solution is fully implemented.
- To more accurately predict monetary savings resulting from your solution.
- To justify investments required for fullscale implementation.
- To identify potential problems with the solution implementation on a larger scale.

Pilot and Analyze the Results

- Complete a plan to execute your pilot:
 - risk assessment to identify potential unintended consequences of the pilot

(H)

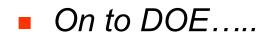
- consider issues such as test population, budget, resources, location, and timing
- develop a data collection plan for your pilot
- Run the pilot and collect process data.
- Analyze the results of the pilot to:
 - prove statistically that your solution meets your improvement goals
 - identify issues and requirements you need to address to ensure successful full-scale implementation of your solution
- Once you have successfully piloted your solution, you can proceed to the Control phase where you will implement the new process on a full scale.



Next Steps

Always use data to make improvement decisions.

- For simple situations where it is easy to determine the magnitude and direction of the impact of the Xs on the Y, use tools available from Measure and Analyze phases.
- For more complex situations, with multiple vital Xs, it may be difficult to determine how the Xs impact the Y. There may be interactions between the Xs and the magnitude and direction of change for the Xs may be difficult to determine. What to do?



Take Aways—Introduction to Improve

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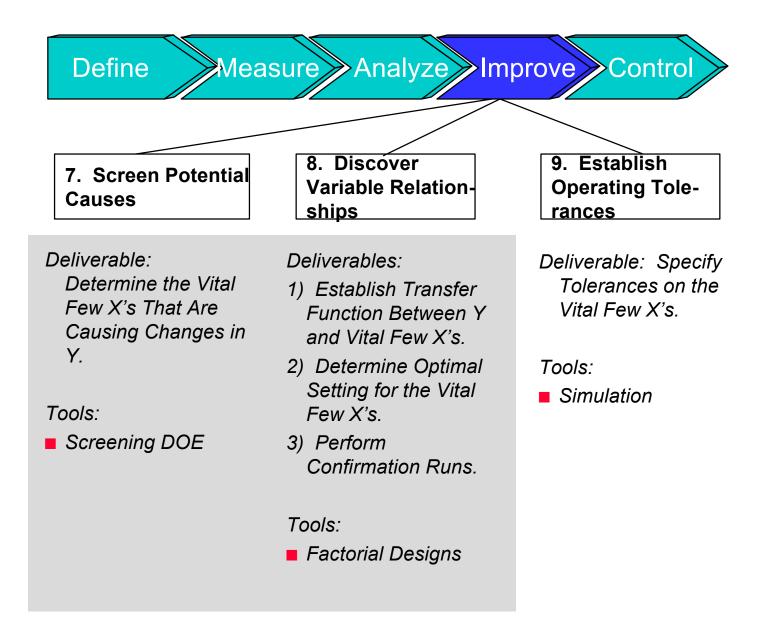
- Develop a strategy for improvement.
- Improvements should be based on data driven analysis.
- Use the tool that best fits your improvement needs.
- When the vital Xs have few interactions use:
 - FMEAs
 - Process Maps, alternate process flows
 - Fishbone
 - Pareto
- Pilot the solution.
- For more advanced problems where the Xs have many interactions, use a Design of Experiments.

Improve Deliverables

- Identify key Xs from Paretos & FMEA.
- Establish improvement actions for each vital X.
- Review applicability of DOE.
- Create new process map.
- Is there a mistake proof solution?
- Establish team "buy-in."
- Does process owner agree on improved process.
- Prove process change (Chi square or 2 sample t) Minitab.
- Finalize financial savings.
- Update Six Sigma Quality Project Tracking database







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Improvement by Design

The Design and Analysis of Experiments

Objective

To decrease the time required to achieve six sigma levels of quality by providing people with tools to characterize and/or improve equipment, processes and products through the application of efficient experimentation and analysis techniques. In particular, to provide understanding of:

(%)

- Designed experiments using the factorial strategy.
 - Techniques for reducing the amount of experimentation
 - Graphical methods of analysis of experiments
 - Numerical methods of analysis of experiments



 Identify all "Xs" (independent variables, root causes)

(H)

- Isolate the "vital few Xs"
- Prove statistically that each one is a "vital X"
- Quantify the magnitude of the impact of each X
- Develop improvement plan (what to do about each X to attain project goals)
- IMPROVE THE PROCESS!



Step 7

Screen Potential Causes

Project deliverable: Determine the Vital Few X's that cause changes in your Y

Step 8

Discover Variable Relationships

Project deliverable: Determine the Transfer Function between Y and vital few X's

(%)

Determine optimal settings for the vital few X's

Perform the Confirmation Runs



Improvement by Design

<u>Caution:</u> You have now selected x's to begin experimentation, you should ensure the measurement system variability on these x's is within guidelines (Step 3).

The measurement system used in the experiment may not be the same one used in the actual process.

Step 10 will address measurement system variability on the x's in the actual application.

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Efficient Experimentation



- Customers of CHI (Cellulose Helicopters Inc.) have been complaining about the limited flight time of CHI helicopters.
- Management wants to increase flight time to improve customer satisfaction.
- You are put in charge of this improvement project.

How would you approach this problem?

(This problem is adapted from *Designing Industrial Experiments: The Engineer's Key to Quality*, by Box, Bisgaard and Fung, Madison, Wisconsin.)

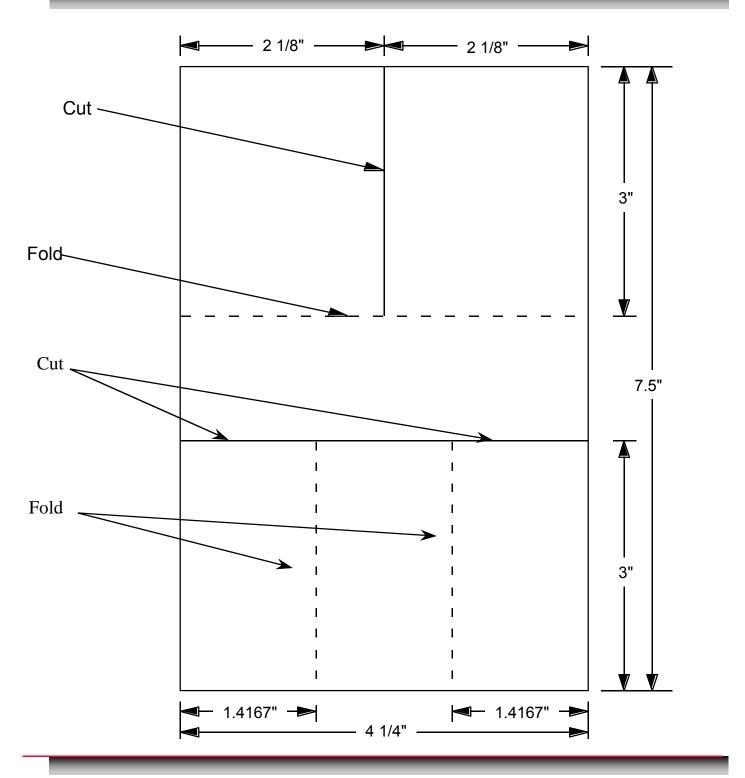


The Approach

- Baseline the current situation.
- Identify key factors affecting flight time.
- Identify potential improvements to be evaluated.
- Develop an experimentation plan.
- Conduct the experiment.
- Evaluate the results.
- Recommend improvements.
- Plan and implement the improvements.
- Provide a mechanism for control.



The Standard Design





What is the Baseline Performance of the Standard Design?

	<u>Trial 1</u>	<u>Trial 2</u>	<u>Trial 3</u>	<u>Average</u>
Team 1				
Team 2				
Team 3				
Team 4				
Team 5				
Team 6				
Team 7				

Team 8



Possible Helicopter Modifications

To Increase Flight Time:



Factors That May Affect Flight Time of CHI Helicopters

The Cellulose Helicopter Association has authorized for flight testing certain modifications to the standard design. Allowable settings for the factors that may vary are shown

<i>below.</i> Factor	Suggested Levels	Allowable
	Standard	Changes
Paper Type	Recycled (yellow)	Copier (white)
Paper Clip	No	Yes
Taped Body	No	3 inches of adhesive tape
Taped Wing Joint	No	Yes
Body Width	1.42"	2.00"
Body Length	3.00"	4.75"
Wing Length	Clip goes here here a	4.75"



Project Description: Phase I

Project Mission

- Find the combination of factors that most consistently maximizes the flight time of a foot drop.
- Project Constraints
 - Your team is authorized to conduct a Phase I investigation into the plausibility of the above mission. Your materials and test budget for this phase is limited to \$1,000,000
 - Each prototype costs \$100,000 to build
 - Additionally, it costs \$10,000 to conduct each flight test

Your team must issue a report in 45 minutes.



Roles and Responsibilities

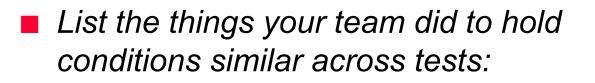
Role	Responsibility	Who
Lead Engineer	Lead the team in deciding which prototypes to build. Has final say on which prototypes are built and tested.	
Test Engineer	Leads the team in conducting the flight tests of all prototypes. Has final say on how tests are conducted.	
Assembly Engineer	Leads the team in building the prototypes. Has final say on all building issues.	
Finance Manager	Leads the team in tracking expenses. Has responsibility for keeping the team on budget.	
Recorder	Leads the team in recording data from the trials.	

Project Report

- Prepare a Phase I report on your recommendations for increasing flight time. Include:
 - Recommendations for an improved helicopter design
 - Predicted flight time at improved setting
 - How much money did you use?
 - What experimental strategy did you use to arrive at the above?
 - How did you analyze your data?
 - Recommendations for future prototypes to construct and test



Exercise





Stick-With-A-Winner Strategy

Description	РТ	PC	тв	тw	BW	BL	WL	Result
1. Standard	_	_	_	—	_	_	_	2.1
2. Paper Trial	+	_	_	_	_	_	_	2.6
3. Clip Trial	+	+	_	_	_	_	_	2.4
4. Taped Body Trial	+	_	+	_	_	_	_	2.5
5. Taped Wing Trial	+	—	—	+	—	—	_	2.8
6. Wide Body Trial	+	_	_	+	+	_	—	2.9
7. Long Body Trial	+	_	_	+	+	+	_	2.7
8. Long Wing Trial	+	_	-	+	+	-	+	3.2

Interpretation:

Since Trial 2 out-performed Trial 1, the paper is changed in the rest of the trials. Since Trial 3 was inferior to Trial 2, the rest of the trials are conducted without the clip (the standard level).

Note: Trial 4 is compared to Trial 2 in order to determine whether or not to proceed with a taped body.

Key:

ΡT	=	Paper Type		
PC	=	Paper Clip		
ΤВ	=	Taped Body		
ΤW	=	Taped Wing Joint		
BW	=	Body Width		
BL	=	Body Length		
WL	=	Wing Length		
Factor Levels				
standard changed				
51	anu	aru changeu		
	_	+		



One-Factor-At-A-Time Strategy

Description	РТ	РС	ТВ	тw	BW	BL	WL	Result
1. Standard	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	2.0
2. Paper Trial	+	_	_	_	_	_	_	2.5
 Clip Trial 	_	+	_	_	_	_	_	1.9
4. Taped Body Trial	_	_	+	_	_	_	_	1.9
5. Taped Wing Trial	_	_	_	+	_	_	_	2.2
6. Wide Body Trial	—	—	—	—	+	—	—	2.3
7. Long Body Trial	—	-	_	_	_	+	—	2.5
8. Long Wing Trial	—	-	-	_	-	-	+	2.3

Key:					
PT	=	Paper Type			
PC	=	Paper Clip			
TB	=	Taped Body			
TW	=	Taped Wing			
BW	=	Body Width			
BL	=	Body Length			
WL	=	Wing Length			
Factor Levels					
sta	and	ard changed			
	_	+)			



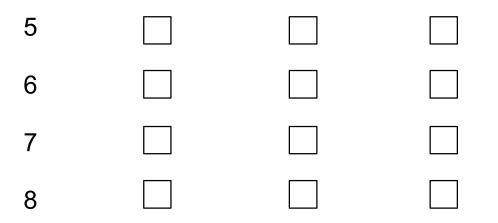
Key Learnings

- The intuitive approach to multi-factor experimentation involves varying only one factor at a time.
- One-factor-at-a-time and stick-with-a-winner strategies can fail to determine which factors are important and be inefficient with respect to the amount of information provided in each trial.
- In one-factor-at-a-time experimentation, the presence of variation in model construction, test, and measurement can make it difficult to see the effect of the factors under study.
- Use care when running experiments. Pay attention to the measurement process. Plan how to keep other factors not under study constant.

One-at-a-Time Strategy 3 Factors, 2 Levels

Trial	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1	_	_	_
2	+	_	_
3	—	+	—
4	_	_	+

What combinations of factor settings are missing?



"-" represents low settings.

"+" represents high settings.



Full Factorial Layout 3 Factors, 2 Levels

Std. Order	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1	_	_	_
2	+	_	_
3	_	+	_
4	+	+	_
5	_	_	+
6	+	_	+
7	_	+	+
8	+	+	+

For 3 factors, each at 2 levels, there are $2^3 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 = 8$ combinations of factor settings.

Notice the pattern of factor settings in the standard order.



Example: A 2³ Factorial Layout

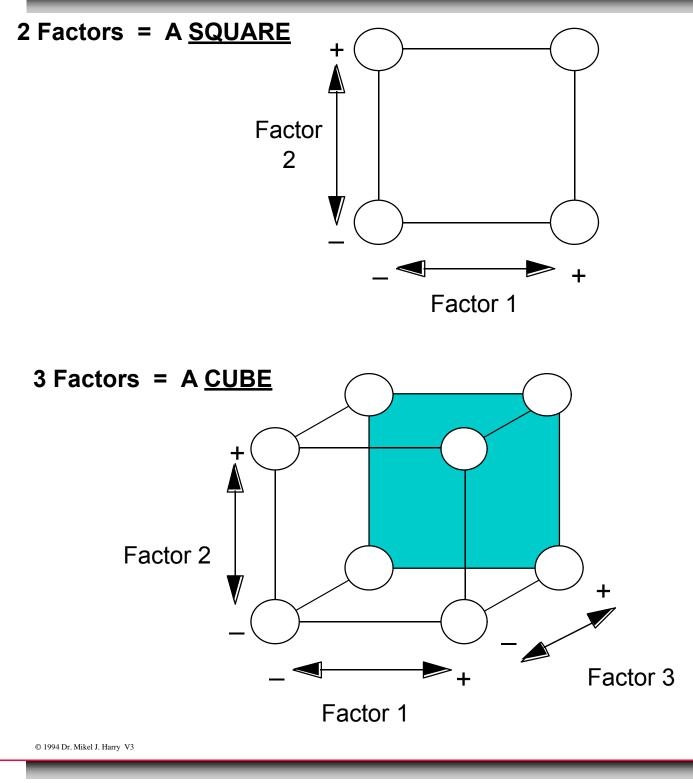
For Three Factors That May Affect Helicopter Flight Time

Std. Order	Paper Type	Body Width	Body Length
1	Recycled	1.42	3.00
2	Copier	1.42	3.00
3	Recycled	2.00	3.00
4	Copier	2.00	3.00
5	Recycled	1.42	4.75
6	Copier	1.42	4.75
7	Recycled	2.00	4.75
8	Copier	2.00	4.75

	Std.	New
		+
Paper Type	Recycled	Copier
Body Width	1.42"	2.00"
Body Length	3.00"	4.75"

Visualizing the Experimental Space

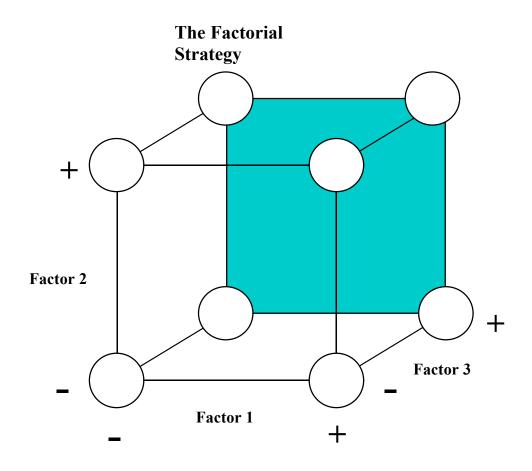
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Screen Potential Causes and Discover Variable Relationships



3 Factors: Cube Layout



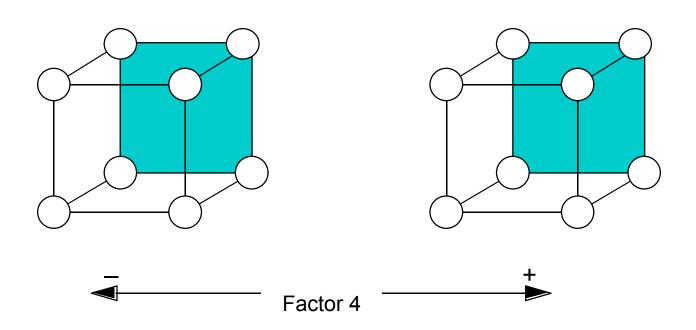
- A cube helps us visualize the experimental space covered by the 3 factors.
- Each corner represents 1 set of experimental conditions.
- 2³ = (Two Levels)^(Three Factors) = 8 experimental conditions.

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4 Factors: Cube Layout

4 Factors = Two <u>CUBES</u>

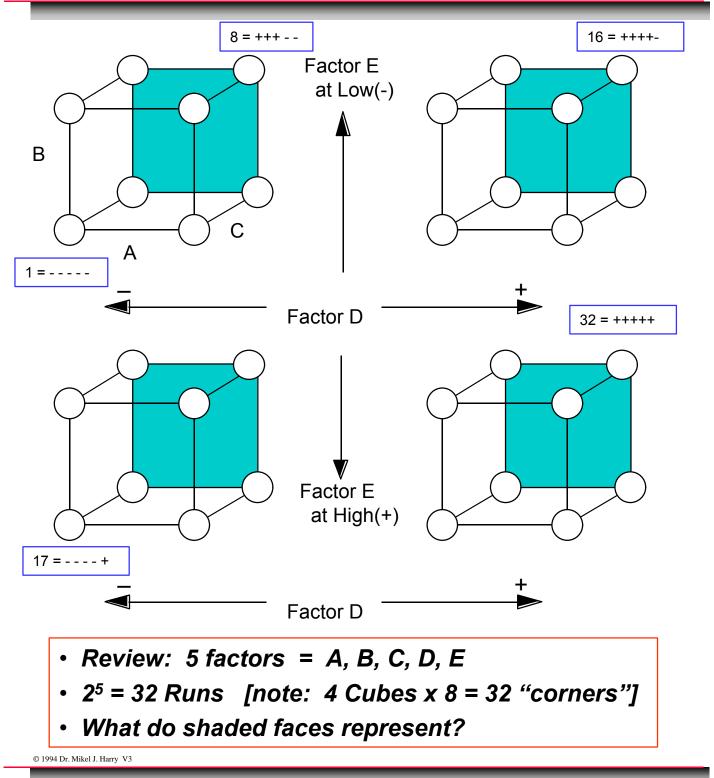


5 factors = four cubes? What does it look like?

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5 Factors: Cube Layout



2^k: The Factorial Pattern of Experimentation

SE)

# of k Factors	Std. Order	X ₁	× X ₂	X ₃	X4	X_5	• X _k
			♠ —̃ ▲	<u> </u>	₽ — ́ 4	┣ ─ਁ ♠	<u> </u>
1r _ 1	1	-	-	_	-	-	
<u>k</u> = 1	2	+		_	-	-	
1 0	3	-	+	_	-	-	
k = 2	<u>4</u> 5	+	+	-	-	-	
		-	_	+	-	-	
	6	+	_	+	-	-	
1 2	7	-	+	+	-	-	
k = 3	8	+	+	+	J –		
	9	-	_	_	+	-	
	10	+	_	_	+	-	
	11	-	+	_	+	-	
	12	+	+	_	+	-	
	13	-	—	+	+	-	
	14	+	_	+	+	-	
	15	-	+	+	+	-	
<u>k</u> = 4	16	+	+	+	+	_	
	17	-	_	_	—	+	
	18	+	_	_	_	+	
	19	-	+	-	—	+	
	20	+	+	_	_	+	
	21	-	—	+	—	+	
	22	+	—	+	—	+	
	23	-	+	+	—	+	
	24	+	+	+	—	+	
	25	_	_	_	+	+	
	26	+	—	_	+	+	
	27	-	+	_	+	+	
	28	+	+	_	+	+	
	29	_	_	+	+	+	
	30	+	_	+	+	+	
		_	+	+	+	+	
<u>k</u> = 5	32	+	+	+	+	+	
	•						
	•						
	•						
k	2^k						
	_			0			1 \(

The number of trials = $(2 \text{ levels})^{(k \text{ factors})} = 2^k$.



Exercise

- How many experimental conditions are there for 7 factors, each at 2 levels?
- Write the full factorial design, using standard order, for an experiment with 3 factors, each at 2 levels.





- One-at-a-time designs explore a potentially misleading portion of the design space.
- Full factorial designs cover the entire design space.
- Full factorial designs are easy to lay out because of the repeating pattern in the standard order.
- The number of experimental conditions for a 2level experiment with k factors is 2^k = 2 x 2 x 2 x ... 2 (k times).

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Process of Experimentation



Process of Experimentation

- 1. Define Project
 - Identify responses
- 2. Establish Current Situation
- 3. Perform Analysis
 - Identify factors
 - Choose factor levels
 - Select design
 - Randomize runs
 - Collect data
 - Analyze data
 - Draw conclusions
 - Verify results
- 4. Determine Solutions
- 5. Record Results
- 6. Standardization
- 7. Determine Future Plans



Replication

- **Definition**: Multiple execution of all or part of the experimental process with the same factor settings.
 - It is not the same as multiple measurements or tests on a single piece, lot, or model

Why?

To measure experimental variability.

So we can decide whether the difference between responses is due to the change in factor levels (an induced special cause) or to common cause variability

To see more clearly whether or not a factor is important

 To obtain two responses for each set of experimental conditions

Location

Spread

 Replication provides the opportunity for factors that are unknown or uncontrollable to balance out. Along with randomization, replication acts as a bias decreasing effect

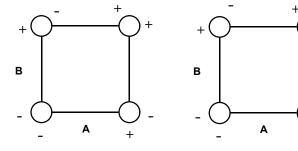


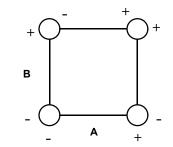
Replication vs. Repetition

Replication: Multiple execution of all or part of the experimental process with the same factor settings. —build different experimental units

Repeat tests: 2 or more observations that have the same levels for all factors

—performed on the same experimental unit





Obs 1

y₁₁

Y₁₂

y₁₃

Y14

Obs 2

y₂₁

Y₂₂

y₂₃

Y₂₄

DESIGN LAYOUT EXAMPLE

Std. Order

1

2

3

4

2² design - I replication

	-	-	
Std. Ord	Response		
1	-	-	V 1
2	+	-	V 2
3	-	+	V 3
4	+	+	V 4
1	-	-	V 5
2	+	-	V 6
3	-	+	V 7
4	+	+	V 8

2² design with 1 repetition

Avg

V₁

 \overline{V}_2

V₃

 \overline{V}_4



Randomization: The Experimenter's Insurance

- **Definition**: To assign the order in which the experimental trials will be run using a random mechanism.
 - It is not the standard order
 - It is not running in an order that is convenient
 - Minitab will randomize for us

Why?

- Averages the effect of any lurking variables over all of the factors in the experiment
- Helps validate statistical conclusions made from the experiment

Lurking Variables

Definition*:

- A variable that has an important effect and yet is not included among the factors under consideration because:
 - Its existence is unknown
 - Its influence is thought to be negligible
 - Data on it are unavailable

Safeguard:

 Randomize the order of the experimental trials to protect against the effect of lurking variables

Action:

- If the lurking variable creates a trend it can be compensated for in the numerical analysis
- Conclusions can then be drawn from the original factors that are not affected by such lurking variables

*Source: Joiner, Brian L. "Lurking Variables: Some Examples," *The American Statistician*, November 1981, Volume 35, No. 4, pp. 227-233.



An Example of a Lurking Variable

The Agricultural Sciences Department at North Carolina State University developed a new and improved chicken feed that would supposedly promote plumper and meatier chickens. The school contracted with a local poultry provider (Holly Farms) and conducted a series of studies testing the new product. The NC State Mathematics Department was asked to develop a DOE to support the above tests.

Preliminary calculations were made and two populations of chickens were identified, tagged (this becomes very important later), and segregated. One population was fed the standard feed and the other fed the new and improved feed. After feeding the two populations of chickens, statistically significant samples from each population were slaughtered and weighed (what we would refer to as 'Destructive Testing'). The outcome of the experiment was obviously trying to prove that chickens on the new feed weighed more than those on the old feed. In this case the Y = Weight and X = Type of feed.

After reviewing the data, the scientists were surprised to learn that there was no statistical difference between the two populations. The average weight (from the samples) was actually slightly higher (although not statistically higher - p-value > 0.05) for those chickens fed the standard feed. Obviously, this baffled the scientists involved in the experiment.

After a few weeks of evaluating the experiment and the data, one of the grad students asked Holly Farms for a map of their facility.

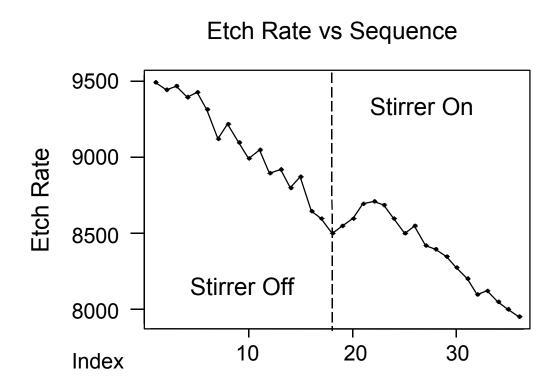
 (\mathscr{B})

After reviewing the map, the student noticed that some of the chicken houses were located immediately next to the slaughter house. This raised a question in the student's mind and he decided to drive out to the farm for some first-hand observations. He was escorted to the slaughter house area and immediately noticed that the chickens located in the houses next to the slaughter house demonstrated significantly higher levels of activity - i.e. clucking, pecking, and running around like... well... like chickens. After another review of the experimental data (by tag number), it was discovered that all of the chickens on the new feed had been located in the house immediately adjacent to the slaughter house - a lurking variable had been identified. (NOTE: without the tag numbers being recorded, this lurking variable may have never been discovered once again illustrating the importance of proper, thorough data collection). After reviewing his findings with the team, it was decided to introduce a new variable into the experiment - chicken house location.

The experiment was re-run with the new variable included (i.e. chicken locations were randomized) and the results analyzed. On the second attempt, the results validated the scientists original hypothesis - the new feed produced plumper, meatier chickens. Evidently, those chickens located next to the slaughter house experienced higher stress levels and subsequent weight loss. As a result, Holly Farms opted to use the new feed AND also relocated all chicken houses AWAY from their slaughter houses.

Moral of the Story: Don't keep your chickens too close to the slaughter house.

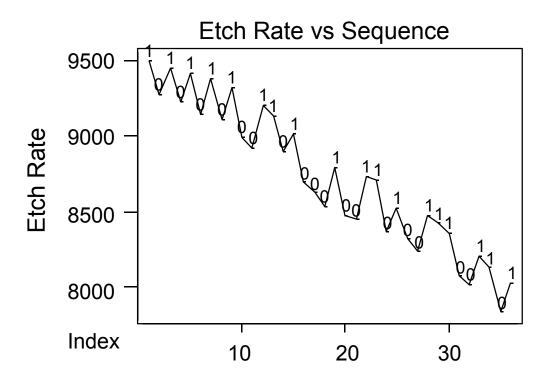




Bath degradation obscures factor effects in a design run in standard order.



Example: Why Randomize? (cont.)



0=stirrer off, 1=stirrer on

In the randomized experiment the stirrer effect is visible despite the effect of bath degradation.

Useful Terminology

- Experiment: A test under defined conditions to determine an unknown effect, to illustrate or verify a known law, or to establish a hypothesis. See design of experiment.
- Experimental Error: Variation in observations made under identical test conditions. The amount of variation that cannot be attributed to the variables included in the experiment.
- **Factor:** Independent variables.
- Interaction: Factors are said to interact if the effect that one factor has on the response is <u>dependent</u> on the level of another factor(s).
- **Level:** The settings of a factor.
- Randomization: Assigning the order in which to run the experimental conditions using a random mechanism.
- Repetition: Multiple measurements or tests on a single piece, lot, or model.
- Replication: Multiple execution of all or part of the experimental process with the same factor settings on different pieces, lots or models.

The Process of Experimentation

(%)

- Define Project
 - Identify responses
- e Establish Current Situation
- 8 Perform Analysis
 - Identify factors
 - Choose factor levels
 - Select design
 - Randomize runs
 - Collect data
 - Analyze data
 - Draw conclusions
 - Verify results
- **o** Determine Solutions
- Record Results
- Standardization
- Determine Future Plans



Data Collection Objectives

What is your goal, or expected outcome, for collecting data?

- In general terms, what data do you need to collect to satisfy the objective?
- What process or product will you monitor to collect the data?



Decide What to Measure

- What data is needed?
- Determine the specific measures that must be gathered to meet the objectives.
- Identify each Y or X that you need to measure.
- What is the operational definition for each measurement?
- Write each definition to ensure that the members of your team have a common understanding of the data to be collected.



Decide How to Measure

- Determine the measurement tool that is required.
 - Does a tool already exist?
 - Do we need a new tool?
 - Examples of tools: stopwatches, gages, eyes, rulers, micrometers, computers, surveys, thermometers, scales, questionnaires, X-ray machines, etc.

Determine the appropriate sample size

- Random samples are important
- Capture the behavior of a process or population accurately while minimizing the expense of data collection

The Process of Experimentation

(%)

- Define Project
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- e Establish Current Situation
- 8 Perform Analysis
 - Identify factors
 - Choose factor levels
 - Select design
 - Randomize runs
 - Collect data
 - Analyze data
 - Draw conclusions
 - Verify results
- Oetermine Solutions
- 8 Record Results
- 6 Standardization
- Determine Future Plans



Steps in Analysis: Full Factorial, Replicated Designs

Diagnostics: Is data OK? Plot the raw data.
 Plot the residuals.

Analysis: Make inferences

- 3. Examine factor effects.
- 4. Confirm impressions with statistical procedures.
- 5. Summarize conclusions.



Plot the Raw Data

First Step in Analysis

- Why?
 - To find "defects" in the data set: typos, mistakes, missing values, problems
 - To get a feel for the actual data, to become familiar with it
 - To get impressions of what the data is going to tell us, to guide our analysis
 - To look for trends that might have interfered with the experiment
 - To reduce the chances that misleading or erroneous conclusions are drawn
- How?
 - Time Order Plots
 - Box Plots

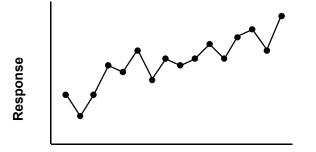


Time Order Plot

- Plot the data in the order it was produced.
- If there is more than one way to order the data, make a plot for each:
 - Order for running experiment
 - Order for taking measurements
 - Spatial arrangements of measurements
- Look for:
 - Outliers
 - Indicate typos, mistakes, or extreme special causes
 - Trends and non-random patterns
 - indicate lurking variables
 - Obvious factor effects

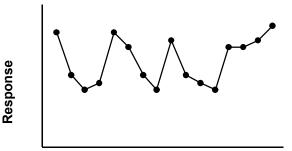


Time Order Plot Examples



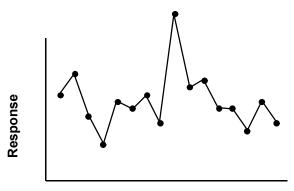
Order of Experiment

a) Trend: Response is increasing over time.



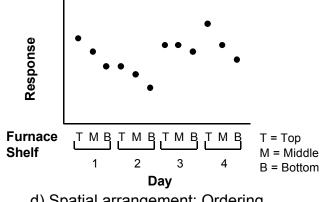
Order of Experiment

c) Possible factor effect:Points are separated into two levels.Label them.



Order of Taking Measurements

 b) There is no trend associated with the measurement process Note the outlier.



 d) Spatial arrangement: Ordering the data by shelf position reveals that the response decreases with the shelf height.



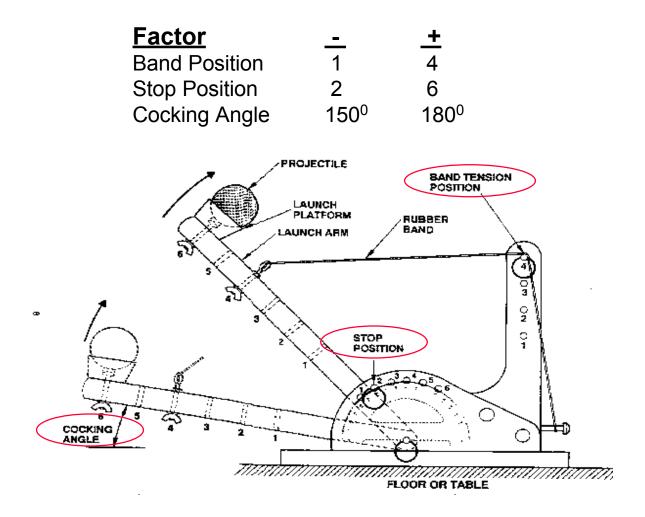
Outlier

Definition

- A data point that is far enough away from the rest of the data that you question whether it "belongs" to the data set
- It sometimes indicates a mistake or some other special cause
- Action
 - Correct the data, if it is a mistake
 - Correct the cause, if possible learn from it
 - If no explanation can be found, leave the outlier in the data set for now and continue with the analysis (do not "throw it out")
- Focus quick improvement efforts on the outliers and reduce variation

Catapult Example

An experiment was conducted with the catapult introduced in Step 4. The experiment consisted of three factors set at 2 levels. Three replicates were conducted and the runs were randomized. The operator, projectile fired, and rubber band were all held constant during the experiment. The data from the experiment can be found in the Minitab worksheet: Catapult_V2.MTW



Example

Time Order Plot of Catapult Distances

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MINITAB FILE: Catapult_V2.MTW

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4	StdOrder	RunOrder	CenterPt					Cocking Angle	Distance	Exp Con	
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2	23	2	1				6	180	49.50	7	
3	11	3	1	1	1		6	150	49.75	3	
4	9	4	1	1	1	3	2	150	49.50	1	
5	2	5	1	1	4		2	150	49.50	2	
6	4	6	1	1	4		6	150	48.25	4	
7	1	7	1	1	1	7	2	150	50.75	1	
8	19	8	1	1	1		6	150	49.25	3	
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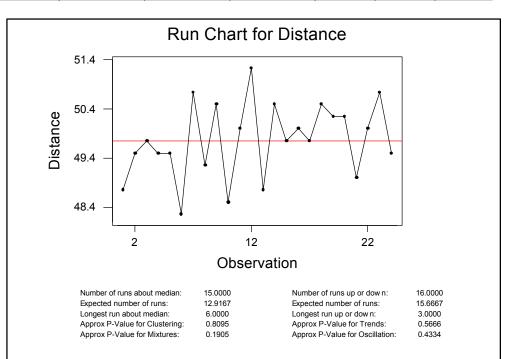
Time Order Plot Results

Run Cha	art		×
C1 C2 C3 C5 C6 C7 C8 C9	StdOrder RunOrder CenterPt Blocks Band Positic Stop Positic Cocking Angl Distance Exp Con	Data are arranged as Single column: Distance Subgroup size: 1 (use a constant or an ID column) Subgroups across rows of: For data in subgroups Plot subgroup means Plot subgroup medians	Options
	Select Help		<u>O</u> K Cancel

Do you see any trends, non-random patterns or outliers?

Visually this data looks OK.

p-values > .05 mean no problems with Clustering, Mixtures, Trends or Oscillation - this is good!





Box Plots

- Make a box plot of all the data.
- Make a box plot for each factor and stratify it by the high and low levels.
- Make a box plot for each set of experimental conditions.
- Why?
 - To get a feel for the variability in all the data
 - To look for outliers
 - To get impressions of the effects of factors Look for:

Shifts in the average Shifts in the variability Example

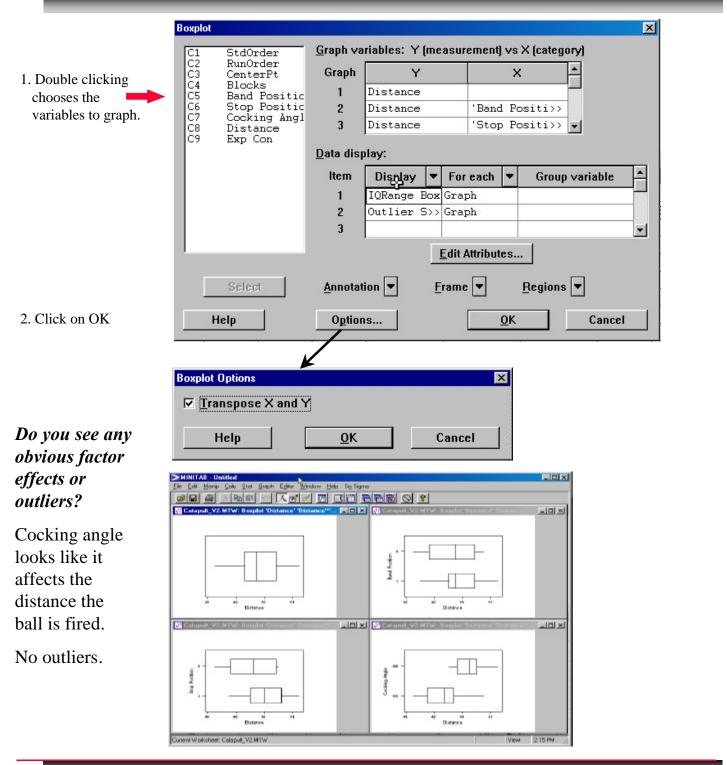
Box Plots of Catapult Distance

MINITAB FILE: Catapult_V2.MTW

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Catapult_V2.MTW *** Marginal Plot							8						
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1	20		Cha	racter <u>G</u> raphs	▶ 1	4	6	150	48.75	4			
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4	9		4	1	1	1	2	150	49.50	1			
5	2		5	1	1	4	2	150	49.50	2			
6	4		6	1	1	4	6	150	48.25	4			
7	1		7	1	1	1	2	150	50.75	1			
8	19		8	1	1	1	6	150	49.25	3			
9	24		9	1	1	4	6	180	50.50	8			
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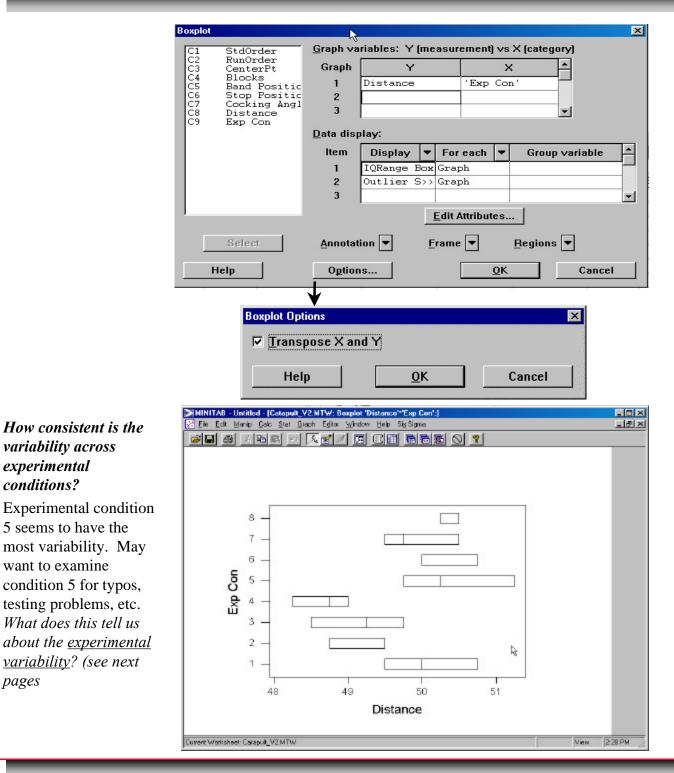


Box Plot Results





Box Plot Results



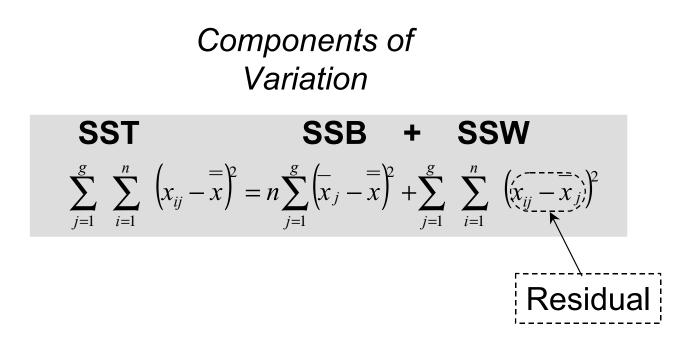
experimental conditions?

want to examine

pages



Variation Review

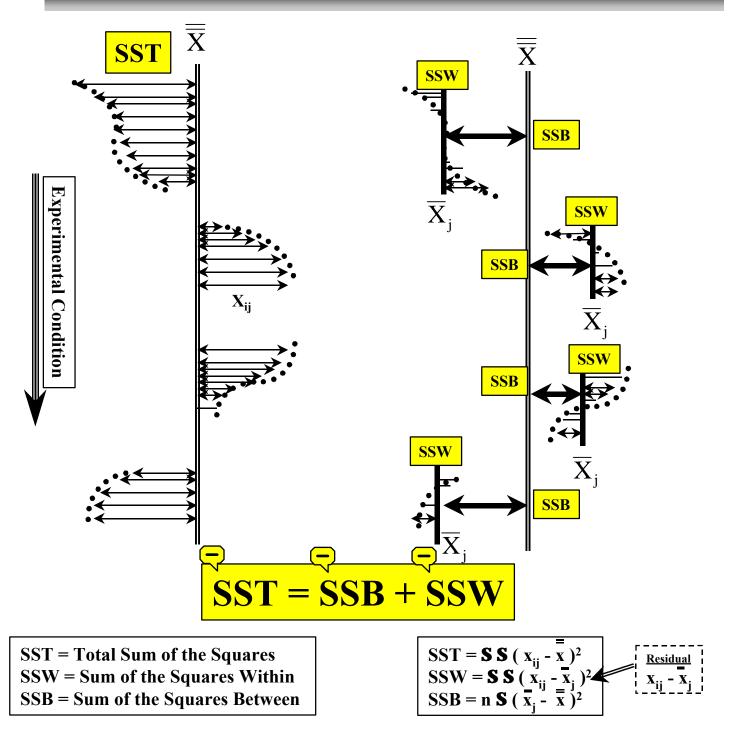


N = Total # of observations n = # of observations in each subgroup g = # of subgroups n x g = total number of observations

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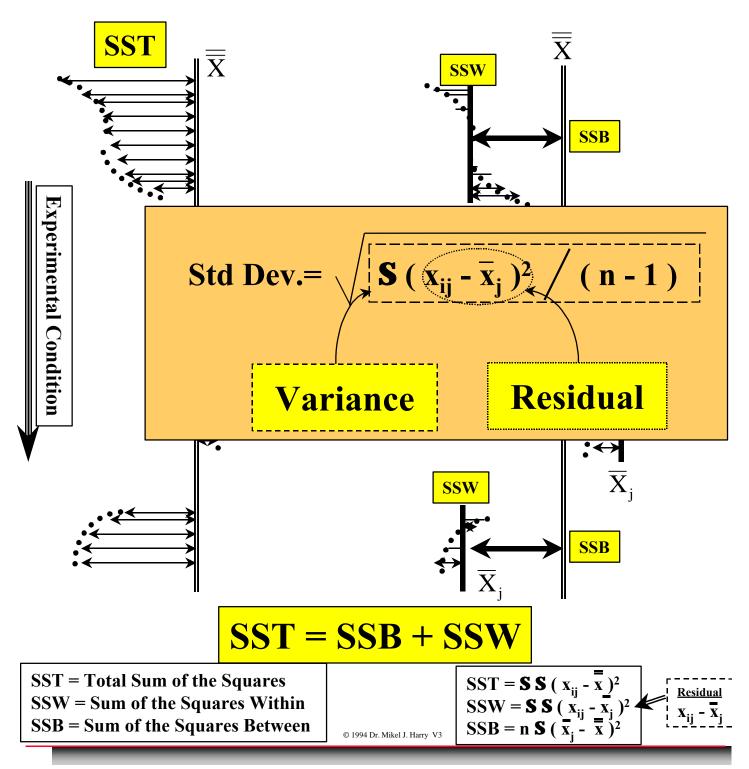
Components of Variation



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Screen Potential Causes and Discover Variable Relationships

Components of Variation



Estimate of Experimental Variability

- The Pooled Standard Deviation is an estimate of the size of experimental variability or common cause variation associated with the experiment.
 - Is the amount of variability that is not explained by the factors
 - Indicates the average amount of variability among runs performed at the same experimental conditions
 - Is **not** the standard deviation of all the **data** combined
 - "Pools" the standard deviation calculated from each condition across all experimental conditions

 $s_p = \sqrt{\text{Average of Variances}}$

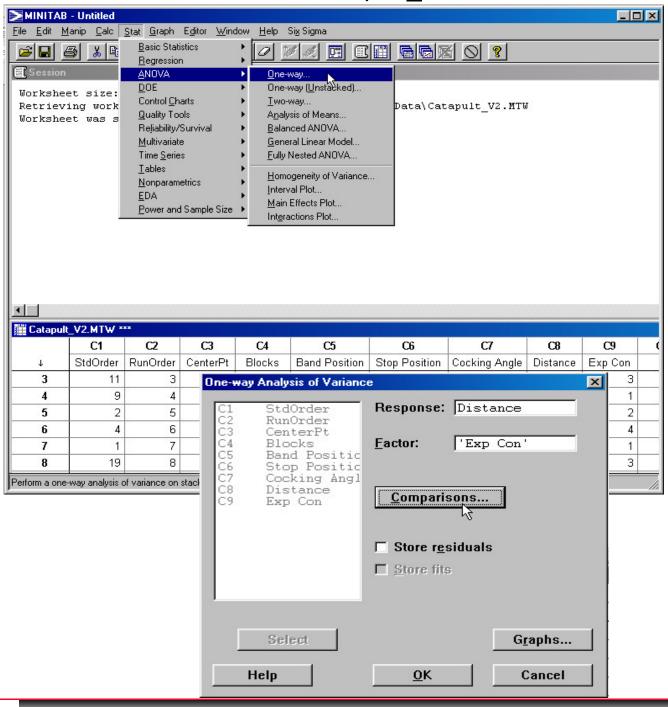
- Assumes the variability is the same at each experimental condition
- Cannot be calculated without replication
- **Purpose**: To help us judge whether factors in the experiment had an effect or not.

* This formula holds if there is an equal number of replicates at each condition, otherwise use a weighted average.



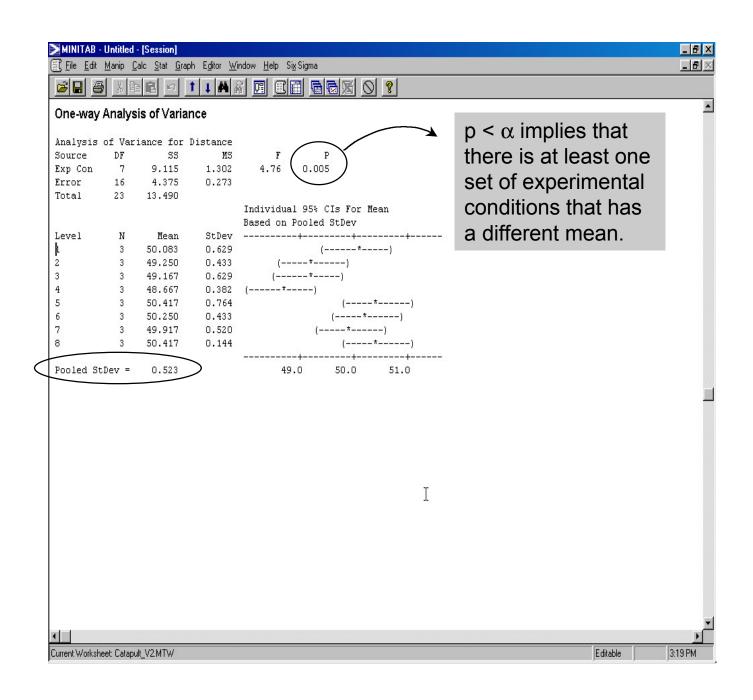
Minitab Calculation of s_p

MINITAB FILE: Catapult_V2.MTW





Minitab Calculation (cont.)





Diagnostics: Is data OK? Plot the raw data.
 Plot the residuals.

(H)

- Analysis: Make inferences
- 3. Examine factor effects.
- 4. Confirm impressions with statistical procedures.
- 5. Summarize conclusions.



Plot the Residuals

Second Step in Analysis

- Residuals are the "leftover" variation in the data after accounting for the main cause of variation: different experimental conditions.
- Like the pooled standard deviation, residuals tell us about common cause variation.
- Notice the formula for the standard deviation is based on the residuals.

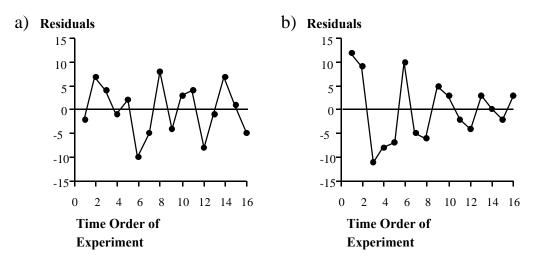
$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(x_i - \overline{x})^2}{n - 1}}$$

- Residuals usually follow a normal distribution.
- Examining residuals carefully and taking appropriate action will increase the accuracy of our conclusions.



Residuals Plot 1

Plot the residuals against time order



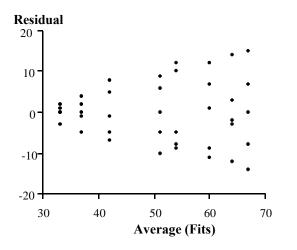
Why?

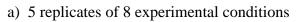
- To ensure that the experimental variability has only common causes associated with it
- To look for lurking variables (trends, outliers, or non-random patterns) that might influence our conclusions. They may have been hidden in other plots

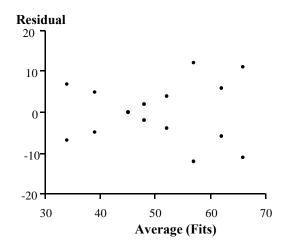


Residuals Plot 2

Plot the residuals against the average ("Fits" in Minitab) for each experimental condition.







b) 2 replicates of 8 experimental conditions

Why?

- To look for a non-random pattern, such as a megaphone shape
 - The megaphone shape indicates that variation increases as the average increases
 - Ignore the pattern indicated by the symmetry of dots around 0. It is not a special cause. Two replicates will always appear perfectly matched.

¥E)			
00)			

Residual Plot 3

Plot the residuals on a normal probability scale.

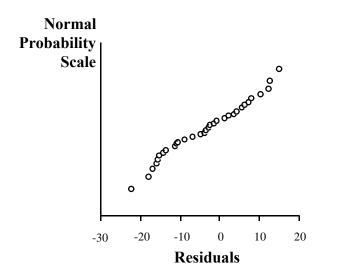
Why?

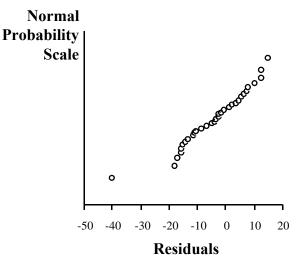
— To look for major deviations from non - "straight line" relationships. This implies the residuals are not normally distributed. The variation in the experiment is not random.

— To look for outliers

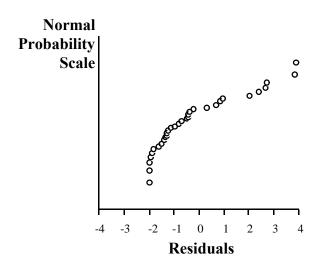


Normal Probability Plots





- a) A straight-line relationship indicates the data follow a normal distribution.
- b) These values follow a normal distribution except for the outlier. Check it.



c) This S-shape indicates these values are not normally distributed.

Creating Residual Plots with Minitab

96)

MINITAB FILE: Catapult_V2.MTW

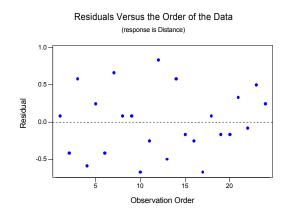
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Catapult	V2 MTW **			Analy	ze Inner/Outer Array	Design				
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Ļ	StdOrder	RunOrder	CenterPt	Blocks	Band Position	Stop Position	Cocking Angle	Distance	Exp Con	
1	20	1	1	1	4	6	150	48.75	4	
2	23	2	1	1	1	6	180	49.50	7	
3	11	3	1	1	1 1		150	49.75	3	
4	9	4	1	1	1	2	150	49.50	1	
5	2	5	1	1	4	2	150	49.50	2	
6	4	6	1	1	4	6	150	48.25	4	
Fit a model to t	he experiment	al data								///

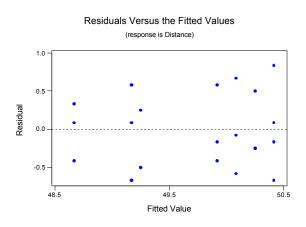


96)



Residual Plot Results



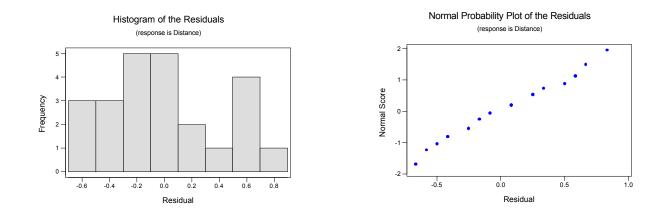


Do you see any trends, non-random patterns or outliers?

Do you see any correlation between residuals and fits (means)? Megaphones?

No, this data looks OK.

No, this data looks OK.



Are the residuals normally distributed?

Yes, this data looks OK.

Actions from Residual Plots

If you have an <u>outlier</u>, try to find an explanation and correct the data. If you cannot find an explanation, leave it in your data as it is.

(H)

- If you see a <u>trend</u> in the residuals over time, you may have a lurking variable. Look for the cause and correct the situation.
- If you have a <u>correlation</u> between the residuals and fits, try to understand from where this relationship is coming. Is it something you can control? Is it inherent in your process? Control your experiment better.
- If your residuals are <u>not normally distributed</u>, you may have a significant factor for which you are not accounting. Look for the factor and include it in your next experiment.
- If you need more help, call your MBB or local statistician.



Steps in Analysis: Full Factorial, Replicated Designs

Diagnostics: Is data OK? Plot the raw data.
 Plot the residuals.

Analysis: Make inferences

- 3. Examine factor effects.
- 4. Confirm impressions with statistical procedures.
- 5. Summarize conclusions.



Examine Factor Effects

The Third Step in Analysis

$$Y = f(X_1, X_2, X_3, ..., X_n)$$

Y (Response) = Distance

 X_i (Factors) = Band Position, Stop Position, Cocking Angle

- How do the factors affect the response?
- How do the combinations (interactions) of factors affect the response?
 - We can write the equation that answers these questions
- Distance = Constant + Band Position Effect + Stop Position Effect + Cocking Angle Effect + Band Position*Stop Position Interaction Effect + Band Position*Cocking Angle Interaction Effect + Stop Position*Cocking Angle Interaction Effect + Band Position*Stop Position* Cocking Angle Interaction Effect

The "Average" Distance Launched

How far is the "average" distance launched?

Std. Order	Band Position	Stop Position	Cocking Angle	Da (Rep 1,		Rep 3)	Average
1	_	_	—	49.5	50.75	50.00	C
2	+	_	_	49.5	48.75	49.50	
3	_	+	_	49.75	49.25	48.50	
4	+	+	_	48.75	48.25	49.00	
5	_	_	+	51.25	49.75	50.25	
6	+	_	+	50.00	50.00	50.75	
7	_	+	+	49.50	50.50	49.75	
8	+	+	+	50.50	50.50	50.25	

Sum <u>1194.50</u>

Overall Average 49.77

Distance = 49.77 + Band Position Effect + Stop Position Effect + Cocking Angle Effect + Band Position*Stop Position Interaction Effect + Band Position*Cocking Angle Interaction Effect + Stop Position*Cocking Angle Interaction Effect + Band Position*Stop Position* Cocking Angle Interaction Effect



Main Effect - Cocking Angle

How does Cocking Angle affect Distance?

Std. Order	Band Position	Stop Position	Cocking Angle	Average	Cocking Angle "-"	Cocking Angle "+"
1	_	_	_	50.10	50.10	
2	+	—	_	49.25	49.25	
3	_	+	_	49.17	49.17	
4	+	+	_	48.67	48.67	
5	_	_	+	50.42		50.42
6	+	_	+	50.25		50.25
7	_	+	+	49.92		49.92
8	+	+	+	50.42		50.42

Cocking Angle "-" Total <u>197.19</u> Cocking Angle "-" Average <u>49.30</u>

Cocking Angle "+" Total 201.01

Cocking Angle "+" Average 50.25

Cocking Angle Effect = [Cocking Angle "+" Average] - [Cocking Angle "-" Average] = 0.95

As Cocking Angle goes from "-" to "+"

distance increases by 0.95 inches.



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How does Band Position affect Distance?

	Band Position "-"	Band Position "+ "			
Total:					
Average:					
[Band Position "+" Average] - [Band Position "-" Average] =					

How does Stop Position affect Distance?

	Stop Postition "-"	Stop Position "+"				
Total:						
Average:						
[Stop Position "+" Average] - [Stop Position "-" Average] =						

Main Effects - Band & Stop Positions

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	Band Position "-"	Band Position "+"
	50.10	49.25
	49.17	48.67
	50.42	50.25
	49.92	50.42
Total:	199.61	198.59
Average:	49.90	49.65

How does Band Position affect Distance?

[Band Position "+" Average] - [Band Position "-" Average] = -.25

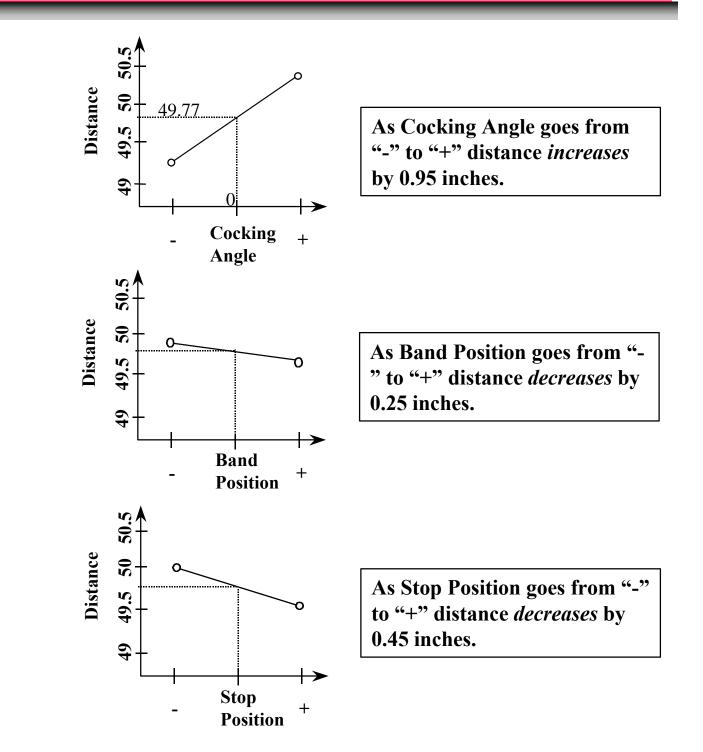
How does Stop Position affect Distance?

	Stop Position "-"	Stop Position "+"
	50.10	49.17
	49.25	48.67
	50.42	49.92
	50.25	50.42
Total:	200.02	198.18
Average:	50.00	49.55

[Stop Position "+" Average] - [Stop Position "-" Average] = - .45

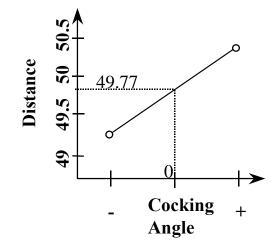


Main Effect Plots





Factor Coefficients



As Cocking Angle goes from "-" to "+" distance *increases* by 0.95 inches.

A **<u>Factor Effect</u>** is the change in response due to a "two-unit" (-1 to +1) change in the factor.

A **<u>Factor Coefficient</u>** is the change in response due to a "one-unit" (-1 to 0 or 0 to +1) change in the factor.

Factor Coefficient = Factor Effect / 2

When Cocking Angle moved from -1 to 0, distance increased by 0.48 inches (0.95 / 2).

The Coefficient for Cocking Angle = 0.48 inches

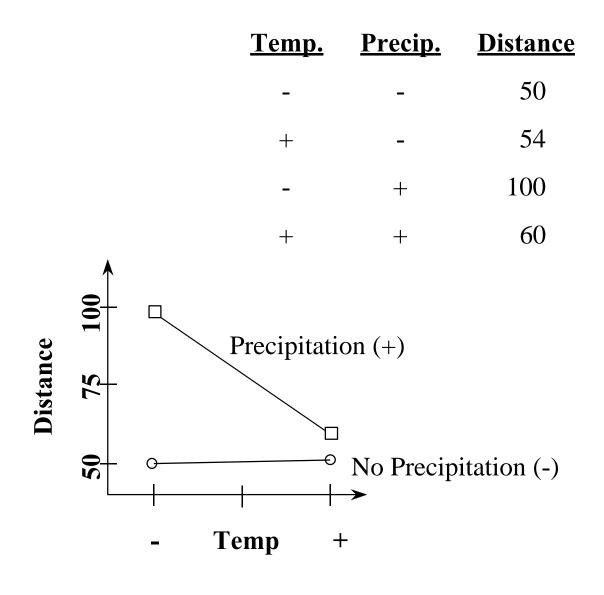
Distance = 49.77 - 0.13*Band Position - 0.23* Stop Position + 0.48* Cocking Angle + Band Position*Stop Position Interaction Effect + Band Position*Cocking Angle Interaction Effect + Stop Position*Cocking Angle Interaction Effect + Band Position*Stop Position* Cocking Angle Interaction Effect

Factor Interactions

- Definition: Factors are said to interact if the effect that one factor has on the response is dependent on the level of another factor(s).
 - **Example:** The effect that ambient temperature has on stopping distance of a car is dependent on whether or not there is precipitation.
 - A car will stop in the same distance for temperatures above or below freezing, if there is no precipitation
 - A car will take much longer to stop when the temperature is below freezing than above freezing, if there is precipitation
 - Response: Stopping Distance (feet)
 - Factor A: Ambient Temperature
 - Below Freezing
 - + Above Freezing
 - Factor B: Precipitation
 - No Precipitation
 - + Precipitation

Example: Stopping Distance Interaction

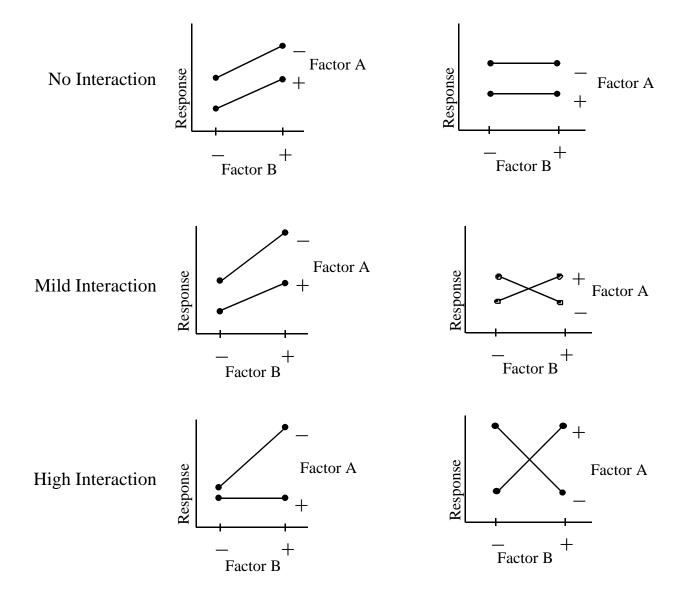
(H)



There is an Interaction Between Temperature and Precipitation



Interpreting Interaction Plots



Adapted from Lawson, John and John Erjavac, *Basic Experimental Strategies and Data Analysis* Provo, UT: Brigham Young University, p. 104.



Interaction Effect

To calculate the Interaction Effect, it is necessary to make an Interaction Column in our design matrix by multiplying the Temp. and Precip. factor level columns together.

(-)(-) = + (+)(-) = - (+)(+) = +

<u>Temp.</u>	<u>Precip.</u>	<u>T*P</u>	Distance
-	-	+	50
+	-	-	54
-	+	-	100
+	+	+	60

T*P Effect = (T*P "+" Average) - (T*P "-" Average)

T*P Effect = (50+60)/2 - (54+100)/2

T*P Effect = - 22 feet

T*P Coefficient = - 11 feet

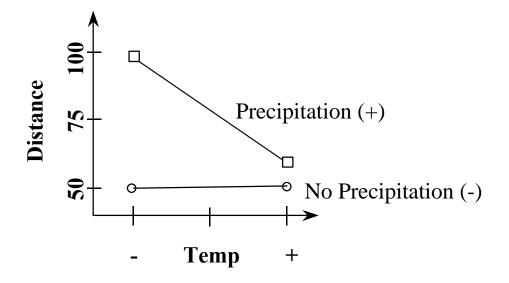
Stopping Distance = Average + Main Effects - 11(T*P)

Interaction Interpretation

Stopping Distance = Average + Main Effects - 11(T*P)

(H)

- To stop 11' shorter, set T*P to "+" (+,+ or -,-)
- Which one should you pick? +, + or -, -?



- You could use the graph to help you decide. (-,- stops at 50' and +,+ stops at 60') Pick -,-.
- Or you could use the Main Effect information to help you decide.



Stopping Distance Exercise

- 1. Calculate the Average and the Main Effects for the Stopping Distance data.
- 2. Complete the equation from the previous page.
- 3. What levels would you set the factors at to calculate the minimum stopping distance?



Factor Names and Interaction Symbols

- It is useful to abbreviate factor names. There are several ways to do this:
 - Choose the first letter or first two letters of each factor
 - Assign factors a letter: A, B, C, D, . . .
- Denote the interaction between Factor A and Factor B as:

 $-A \times B$ or AB

- For two factors (A and B) there is one interaction: AB
- For three factors there are
 - Three two-way interactions: AB, AC, BC
 - One three-way interaction: ABC
- How many interactions are there for four factors (A,B,C,D)?

Interaction Columns for a 2³ Design

86)

Std. Order	A	В	С	AB	AC	BC	ABC	Average Response
1	_	_	_	+	+	+	_	
2	+	_	_	_	_	+	+	
3	_	+	_	_	+	_	+	
4	+	+	_	+	_	_	_	
5	_	_	+	+	_	_	+	
6	+	_	+	_	+	_	_	
7	_	+	+	_	_	+	_	
8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	

(H)

Example

Worksheet for Computing Catapult Effects

Std. Orde	r BP	SP	CA	BPSP	BPCA	SPCA	BPSPCA	Average Distance
1	_	_	_	+	+	+	_	50.10
2	+	_	_	_	_	+	+	49.25
3	—	+	—	—	+	—	+	49.17
4	+	+	_	+	_	_	_	48.67
5	—	—	+	+	—	—	+	50.42
6	+	—	+	—	+	—	—	50.25
7	—	+	+	_	_	+	_	49.92
8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	50.42
Σ(+)	<u>198.59</u>			<u>199.61</u>			100 26	Sum the Ave. Distance corresponding to all the pluses.
Σ(-)	<u>199.61</u>			<u>198.59</u>			100.01	Sum the Ave. Distance corresponding to all the minuses.
$\Sigma(+) + \Sigma(-)$	<u>398.20</u>			<u>398.20</u>			3UX /11	Arithmetic Check: Should equal the same number in each column.
$\Sigma(+) - \Sigma(-)$	<u>-1.02</u>			1.02			0.32	
$[\Sigma(+) - \Sigma(-)] \div 4$	- <u>0.25</u>	- <u>0.46</u>	<u>0.95</u>	<u>0.25</u>	<u>0.42</u>	0.29	0.08	These are the "EFFECTS" or the signal from the experiment.

Distance = 49.77 - 0.13**Band Position* - 0.23* *Stop Position* + 0.48* Cocking Angle + 0.13(Band Position*Stop Position) + 0.21(Band Position*Cocking Angle) + 0.15(Stop **Position***Cocking Angle) + 0.04(Band Position*Stop **Position*** Cocking Angle)

Catapult Example Using Minitab

98)

MINITAB FILE: Catapult_V2.MTW

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Analysis of Var Quality Tools Source DF Exp Con 7 Error 16 Total 23 Level N					Analyze Factorial Design Factorial Plots Create RS Design Define Custom RS Design Analyze RS Design RS Plots Multiple Response Optimizer							
1 2 3 4 5	3 - 3 3 3 3	50.083 49.250 49.167 48.667 50.417	0.629 0.433 0.629 0.382 0.764	B Creati Defin Analy Modif	aid Contour Plot e Migture Design e Custom Mixture De ze Mixture Design y Design y Design)					
Catapult	V2 MTW **	**		Analy	ze Inner/Outer Array	Design						
	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9	(
Ļ	StdOrder	RunOrder	CenterPt	Blocks	Band Position	Stop Position	Cocking Angle	Distance	Exp Con			
1	20	1	1	1	4	6	150	48.75	4			
2	23	2	1	1	1	6	180	49.50	7			
3	11	3	1	1	1	6	150	49.75	3			
4	9	4	1	1	1	2	150	49.50	1			
5	2	5	1	1	4	2	150	49.50	2			
6	4	6	1	1	4	6	150	48.25	4			
Fit a model to the experimental data												

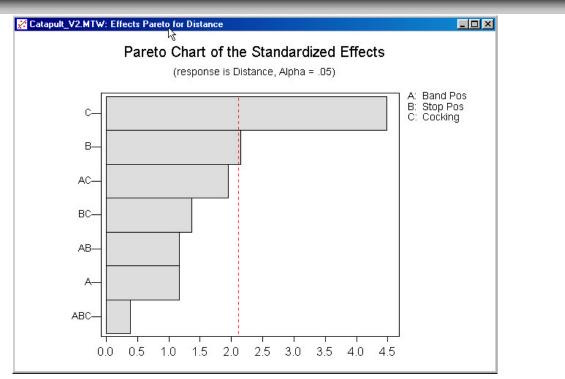
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Minitab Input

Analyze Factorial Design			×	
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C8 Distance C9 Exp Con				
	Distance			
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Help		OK Can	cel (Choose Pareto
		Analyze Factorial Design	Graphs	×
		C1 StdOrder	Effects Plots	¥ •
		C2 RunOrder	<u>N</u> ormal	Pareto Alpha: 0.05
		C3 CenterPt C4 Blocks		Zibia: lo:00
		C5 Band Pos C6 Stop Pos	Residuals for Pl	ots:
		C2 RunOrder C3 CenterPt C4 Blocks C5 Band Pos C6 Stop Pos C7 Cocking. C8 Distance C9 Exp Con	Regular	○ <u>S</u> tandardized ○ <u>D</u> eleted
	_	C9 Exp Con		
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Minitab Results



E Session

Fractional Factorial Fit

Estimated Effects and Coefficients for Distance (coded units)

Term		Effect	Coef	StDev Coef	Т	P
Constant			49.7708	0.1067	466.29	0.000
Band Pos		-0.2500	T-0.1250	0.1067	-1.17	0.259
Stop Pos		-0.4583	-0.2292	0.1067	-2.15	0.047
Cocking		0.9583	0.4792	0.1067	4.49	0.000
Band Pos*Stop Pos		0.2500	0.1250	0.1067	1.17	0.259
Band Pos*Cocking		0.4167	0.2083	0.1067	1.95	0.069
Stop Pos*Cocking		0.2917	0.1458	0.1067	1.37	0.191
Band Pos*Stop Pos*Co	cking	0.0833	0.0417	0.1067	0.39	0.701
Source Main Effects	DF 3	Seq SS 7.1458	-			
Source	DF	100 C	-	Adj MS		Р
2-Way Interactions		1.9271				0.111
3-Way Interactions	1	0.0417				0.701
Residual Error	16	4.3750				
Pure Error	16	4.3750	4.37500	0.27344		
Total	23	13.4896				

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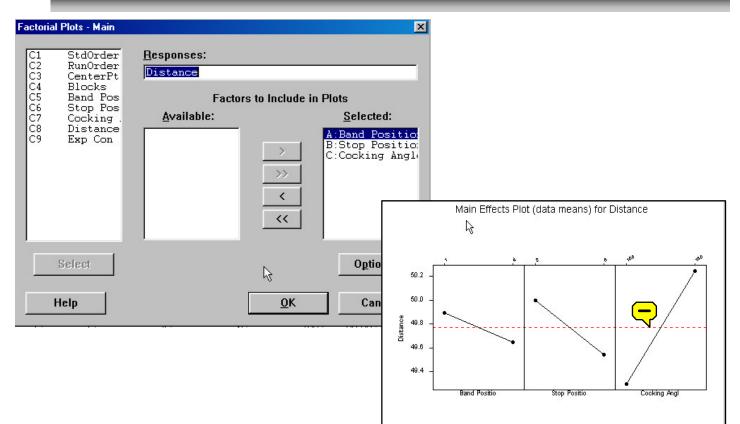
Factorial Plots Setup

MINITAB FILE: Catapult_V2.MTW

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Stop P		EDA	•	HERDS. Multiple Esopores	Collected St.		0.047				
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	Interaction		0.041		0.04167		0.701				
Residu	al Error	16	4.375	0 4.37500	0.27344		1010000000				
	Error	16	4.375		0.27944						
Total		60	13.489	M.01							
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7	1	7	1	1	1	2	150	50.75	1		1
8	19	8	1	1	1	ø	150	49.25	3		1
9	24	9	1	1	4	6	180	50.50	8		
10	3	10	1	1	1	6	150	48.5D	3		
11	22	11	1	1	4	2	180	50.00	6		
12	5	12	1	1	1	2	160	51.25	5		
13	18	13	1	1	4	2	150	48.75	2		
14	15	- 14		1	1	A	190	50.50	7		
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	□ <u>C</u> ube (r			(response versus levels of 2 to 8 factors) Setup							
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Factorial Plots



Factorial	Plots - Interact				×					
C1 C2 C4 C5 C6 C7 C8 C9	StdOrder RunOrder CenterPt Blocks Band Pos Stop Pos Cocking Distance Exp Con	Responses: Distance Factors & Available:	E	lots <u>S</u> elect A:Band F B:Stop F C:Cockir	Band •4 •1	Interact Positio	tion Plot (data r 2 Stop Posit •6 •2	6		490 -50.0 -49.5 -49.0 -50.0 -49.0
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Screen Potential Causes and Discover Variable Relationships

Steps in Analysis: Full Factorial, Replicated Designs

Diagnostics: Is data OK? Plot the raw data.
 Plot the residuals.

Analysis: Make inferences 3. Examine factor effects.

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- 4. Confirm impressions with statistical procedures.
- 5. Summarize conclusions.



Confirm Impressions

The Third Step in Analysis

- By now you have a good idea about the influence of the factors in the experiment. You can confirm these impressions statistically by performing a Hypothesis Test.
- H_o: Factor has no effect on the results
- H_a: Factor has an effect on the results
- p > a: Reject H_a
- p < a: Accept H_a

Session							
Fractional Factorial F	ït						
Estimated Effects an	d Coef:	ficients fo	r Distance	(coded unit	s)		
Term		Effect	Coef	StDev Coef	Т	Р	
Constant			49.7708	0.1067	466.29	0.000	
Band Pos		-0.2500	T-0.1250	0.1067	-1.17	0.259	
Stop Pos		-0.4583	-0.2292	0.1067	-2.15	0.047	_
Cocking		0.9583	0.4792	0.1067	4.49	0.000	
Band Pos*Stop Pos		0.2500	0.1250	0.1067	1.17	0.259	
Band Pos*Cocking		0.4167	0.2083	0.1067	1.95	0.069	
Stop Pos*Cocking		0.2917	0.1458	0.1067	1.37	0.191	
Band Pos*Stop Pos*Co	cking	0.0833	0.0417	0.1067	0.39	0.701	
Analysis of Variance	for D	istance (co	ded units)				
Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	Р	
Main Effects	3	7.1458	7.14583	2.38194	8.71	0.001	
2-Way Interactions	3	1.9271	1.92708	0.64236	2.35	0.111	
3-Way Interactions	1	0.0417	0.04167	0.04167	0.15	0.701	
Residual Error	16	4.3750	4.37500	0.27344			
Pure Error	16	4.3750	4.37500	0.27344			
Total	23	13.4896					
d d							

Only <u>Cocking Angle</u> has a significant affect on the distance.





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Macro i: Catapult ↓ 1 2 3	s running C1 StdOrder 20 23 11	g ple C2 RunOrder 1 2 3	ase wait C3 CenterPt 1 1 1	C4 Blocks 1 1 1	C5 Band Position 4 1 1	C6 Stop Position 6 6 6	Cocking Angle 150 180 150	Distance 48.75 49.50 49.75	Exp Con 4 7 3	C10	C11	-	
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Practical Significance (cont.)

General Linear Model
C1 StdOrder C2 RunOrder C3 CenterPt C4 Blocks C5 Band Positic C6 Stop Positic C7 Cocking Angl C8 Distance C9 Exp Con Random factors: Pesponses: Distance Distance Position' 'Cocking Angle' Random factors:
Covariates Options Comparisons
Select Graphs Results Storage Help OK Cancel
⊥ General Linear Model
FactorType Levels ValuesBand Posfixed21Stop Posfixed22Cockingfixed2150
Analysis of Variance for Distance, using Adjusted SS for Tests
Source DF Seq SS Adj SS Adj MS F P Band Pos 1 0.3750 0.3750 1.18 0.290 Stop Pos 1 1.2604 1.2604 3.97 0.060 Cocking 1 5.5104 5.5104 17.37 0.000 Error 20 6.3437 6.3437 0.3172 Total 23 13.4896
Unusual Observations for Distance
Obs Distance Fit StDev Fit Residual St Resid 7 50.7500 49.6458 0.2299 1.1042 2.15R
R denotes an observation with a large standardized residual.

Steps in Analysis: Full Factorial, Replicated Designs

Diagnostics: Is data OK? Plot the raw data.
 Plot the residuals.

(H)

3. Examine factor effects.

Analysis: Make inferences

- 4. Confirm impressions with statistical procedures.
- 5. Summarize conclusions.



Summarize Conclusions

The Fifth Step in Analysis

- List all the conclusions you have made during the analysis.
- Interpret the meaning of these results. For example, relate them to known physical properties, engineering theories, or your own personal knowledge.
- Make recommendations.
- Formulate and write conclusions in simple language.

We have completed Step 3 in the 7 step method for Improvement. Your recommendation (solution) should be confirmed, operationalized, and standardized in the remaining four steps (Confirm Solutions, Operationalize Results, Standardization, and Develop Future Plans).



Compute Prediction Model

- The important effects from the analysis of a designed experiment can be used to develop a model to predict conditions not included in the experiment.
- Include all statistically significant effects.
 - Effects that are not significant do little to improve prediction and will add to the complexity of the model
- When using models for prediction, remember:
 - Interpolation within the region of experimentation is reasonably safe
 - Extrapolation beyond the region of experimentation is unwise unless verified by experimentation
 - Model coefficients are based on data that is variable.
 Predictions from models will be approximations subject to uncertainty.



Catapult Prediction Model

Since the only statistically significant factor was Cocking Angle, only this term is included in the prediction model.

Distance = 49.77 + 0.48**Cocking Angle*

To maximize Distance set:
 Cocking Angle = 180^o (+)

Distance = 49.77 + 0.48(+) = 50.25 inches



Prediction Model for Standard Deviation:

<u>Step 1:</u> Prepare a "**reduced design matrix**" — in standard order with the Mean and **Standard Deviation** of the response at each Experimental Condition.

[Catapult Case: 2³ = 8 Exp. Conditions with 3 replications] BP = Band Position, SP = Stop Position, CA = Cocking Angle

Example:

Exp Cond	BP	SP	CA	Mean	StDev
1	-1	-1	-1	50.083	0.629
2	1	-1	-1	49.250	0.433
3	-1	1	-1	49.167	0.629
4	1	1	-1	48.667	0.382
5	-1	-1	1	50.417	0.764
6	1	-1	1	50.250	0.433
7	-1	1	1	49.917	0.520
8	1	1	1	50.417	0.144

Enter the reduced matrix in the file Catapult_V2.mtw in columns C10-C15. In order for Minitab to recognize the new design, we must define it in Minitab. We do this by using the command Define Custom Factorial Design.



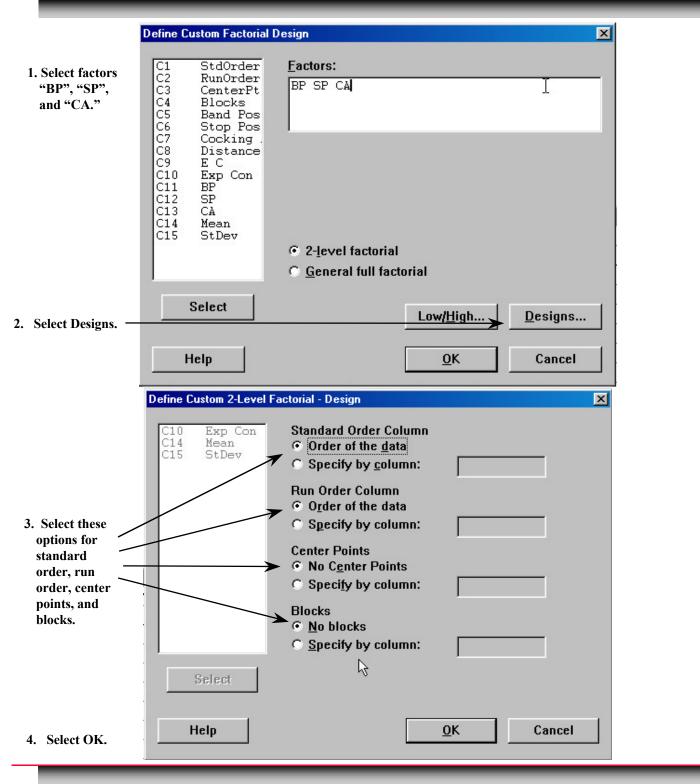
Define Custom Factorial Design

MINITAB FILE: Catapult_V2.MTW

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<u>Step 2:</u> Define the custom design.

Minitab Input



H)

Prediction Model for Standard Deviation

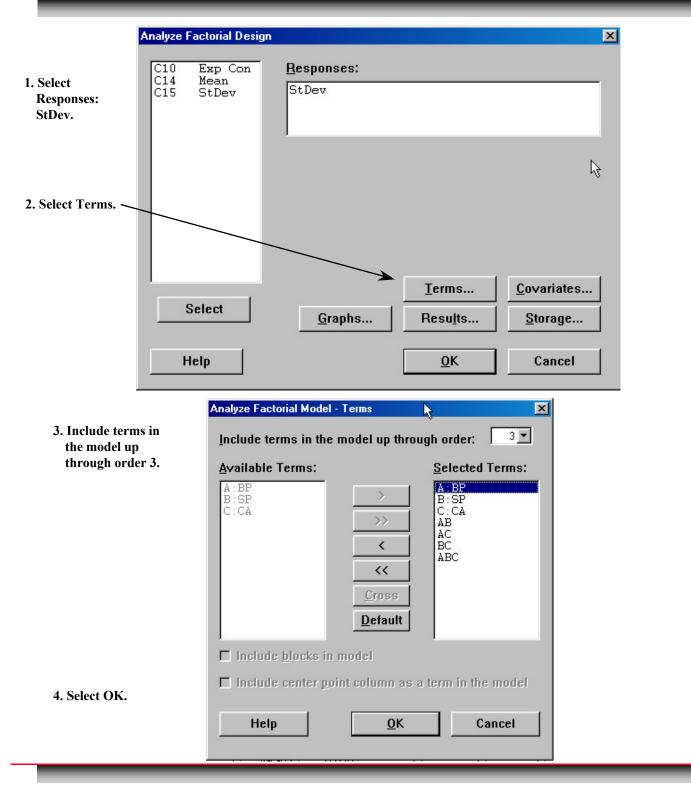
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MINITAB FILE: Catapult_V2.MTW

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<u>Step 3:</u> Run Factorial Analysis using StDev as response.

Minitab Input





Minitab Output

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Main Effects 2-Way Interacti 3-Way Interacti Residual Error Total	DF 3 ons 3 ons 1 0 7	Seq S 0.21356 0.03890 0.00000 0.00000	S A 2 0.2 5 0.0 4 0.0	dj SS 13562 (38905 (00004 (0.0711875 0.0129682 0.0000045	5 * 2 * 5 *		1	1		<u>4</u>
Main Effects 2-Way Interacti 3-Way Interacti Residual Error Total	DF 3 ons 3 0 7 7	Seq S 0.21356 0.03890 0.00000 0.00000 0.25247	S A 2 0.2 5 0.0 4 0.0 0 0.0	dj SS 13562 (38905 (00004 (00000 (0.0711875 0.0129682 0.0000045 0.0000000	5 * 2 * 5 *	P * *		1		
Main Effects 2-Way Interacti 3-Way Interacti Residual Error Fotal 5 5	DF 3 ons 3 0 7 7	Seq S 0.21356 0.03890 0.00000 0.00000 0.25247	S A 2 0.2 5 0.0 4 0.0 0 0.0 1 1	dj SS 13562 (38905 (00004 (00000 (0.0711875	5 * 2 * 5 * 0	P * * *	1			
Main Effects 2-Way Interacti 3-Way Interacti Residual Error Fotal 5 5 6 6	DF 3 ons 3 0 7 7	Seq S 0.21356 0.03890 0.00000 0.25247 -1 -1	S A 2 0.2 5 0.0 4 0.0 0 0.0 1 1	dj SS 13562 (38905 (00004 (00000 (50.417 50.250	0.0711875	5 * 2 * 5 * 5 5 6	P * * * 5 6	1	1		
Main Effects 2-Way Interacti 3-Way Interacti Residual Error Fotal 5 5 6 6 7 7	DF 3 ons 3 0 7 7	Seq S 0.21356 0.03890 0.00000 0.00000 0.25247	S A 2 0.2 5 0.0 4 0.0 0 0.0 1 1 1 1 1	dj SS 13562 (38905 (00004 (00000 (50.417 50.250 49.917	0.0711873	5 * 2 * 5 * 5 6 7	P * * 5 6 7	1	1		
Main Effects 2-Way Interacti 3-Way Interacti Residual Error Total 5 5 6 6 7 7 8 8	DF 3 ons 3 0 7 7	Seq S 0.21356 0.03890 0.00000 0.00000 0.25247	S A 2 0.2 5 0.0 4 0.0 0 0.0 1 1 1 1 1	dj SS 13562 (38905 (00004 (00000 (50.417 50.250 49.917	0.0711873	5 * 2 * 5 * 5 6 7	P * * 5 6 7	1	1		
Main Effects 2-Way Interacti 3-Way Interacti Residual Error Total 5 55 6 6 7 7 8 8 9	DF 3 ons 3 0 7 7	Seq S 0.21356 0.03890 0.00000 0.00000 0.25247	S A 2 0.2 5 0.0 4 0.0 0 0.0 1 1 1 1 1	dj SS 13562 (38905 (00004 (00000 (50.417 50.250 49.917	0.0711873	5 * 2 * 5 * 5 6 7	P * * 5 6 7	1	1		

None of the factors has a significant *dispersion effect*



Prediction Model for Standard Deviation

<u>Step 4:</u> Build **Prediction Model** using "significant" factors — remember to include first order "parents" of significant higher-order, "child" interactions.

<u>Model</u>

StDev = Constant

Model with coefficient values plugged in:

StDev = 0.4918

Six Sigma Goal = reduce variation!!

What factor settings, X_i values = low vs. high, minimize StDev of the response variable Y?



Prediction Model for Standard Deviation

Step 5: Explore **Prediction Models**:

- optimize **Center** (Distance) and **Spread** (StDev)
- explore "trade-offs" vs. goals (CTQs)
- *implement "settings" Improve (as in MAIC)*
- track results establish Control

<u>Models:</u>

Distance = 49.77 + 0.48 • CA StDev = 0.4918

Are there any trade-offs? Can we "win" both ways?

Trade-offs? Can we "win" both ways?

(H)

To help us see the trade-offs, we can take a graphical look at:

```
Mean = location effects vs.
StDev = dispersion effects
```

We have two options for setting this up in Minitab:

STAT >ANOVA Main Effects Plot Response = Mean (<u>and then StDev</u>) Factors = BP, SP, CA

or:

STAT >DOE >Factorial Plots > Main Effects Responses = Mean StDev (i.e., can <u>select both</u> at same time) Factors = BP,SP, CA

Prediction Model for Standard Deviation

<u>Step 6:</u> Determine Factor Settings — Six-Sigma solution = on Target (Mean) & minimal variation (StDev).

EXAMPLE: Goal = CTQs — Catapult Case:

- 1. "launch reasonable distance say 50 inches or better [CTQ1 = "Quality: Performance"]
- <u>"minimize variation</u> in distance" customer wants to see very little difference in distance projectiles are launched [CTQ2 = "Consistency"] plus CTQ2 > CTQ1 [from QFD]

Solution:

Minimize StDev:

StDev = 0.4918

Distance > 50 will also give minimum StDev above:

Distance = 49.77 + 0.48 • CA CA = +1 Distance = 49.77 + 0.48 = 50.25



Another Example

DOE Example A 2–level factorial experiment was performed to determine the effects that three factors had on the force applied to the quill of a numerically controlled mill. The three factors are:

1) the direction of cut with respect to the direction the metal was rolled

2) clearance angle of cutting tool, and

3) feed rate

There were three replications made at each of the eight conditions. The order of the twenty-four runs was randomized to make the effects of any unknown or uncontrollable factors appear as random variability in the results. Strain gauges were mounted to the quill, leads connected to a strain gauge amplifier, and the amplifier output connected to an eight bit A/D converter in a PC computer." *

*This experiment was performed by Michael B. Seamons, Brigham Young University, April 1985.

Factor Levels: Direction of cut with	Low (–), High (+)
respect to the direction the metal was rolled (D): degrees	15 degrees, 75
Clearance Angle (A): degrees	5 degrees, 10
Feed Rate (R): in./min.	4 in./min., 12

MINITAB FILE: Quill.mtw

This DOE material prepared for GE and copyright \circledast 1990 by Joiner Associates Inc. and Improvement Professionals

Run Order	Experimental Conditions	R	Α	D	Force
1	8	+	+	+	57.9
2	6	+	_	+	61.4
3	8	+	+	+	57.1
4	6	+	_	+	62.5
5	4	+	+	_	49.9
6	1	_	_	_	42.1
7	7	_	+	+	57.8
8	5	_	_	+	61.2
9	2	+	_	_	40.7
10	3	_	+	_	50.9
11	5	_	_	+	60.9
12	4	+	+	_	53.0
13	8	+	+	+	57.0
14	1	_	—	—	38.9
15	2	+	_	—	43.2
16	5	_	—	+	59.8
17	2	+	_	—	43.8
18	1	_	_	—	41.4
19	4	+	+	—	53.5
20	3	_	+	—	47.3
21	7	_	+	+	55.3
22	6	+	_	+	59.1
23	3	_	+	—	51.6
24	7	—	+	+	56.4



Analyzing the Data

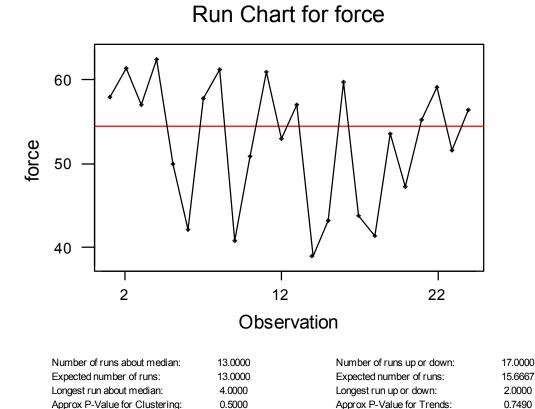
- Plot and analyze the raw data. —check for stability, shape, center, spread, outliers, obvious factor effects
- 2. Develop the prediction model for force:
 - a. What values should you use for R, A, and D to maximize force?
 - b. What values would you use to minimize force?
- 3. What is the prediction model for "dispersion effects," for StdDev?
- 4. Use a condensed matrix to obtain Main Effects Plots for both force and StdDev.
- 5. Any comments about the DOE residual analysis?
- Use Minitab file Quill.mtw



Stability

STAT -> QUALITY TOOLS -> RUN CHART

- SINGLE COLUMN: force
- SUBGROUP SIZE: 1



0.5000

Approx P-Value for Mixtures:

Approx P-Value for Oscillation:

0.2510

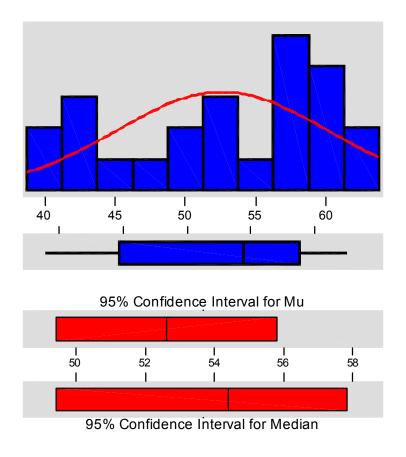


Descriptive Statistics

STAT -> BASIC STATISTICS -> DISPLAY DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

- VARIABLE: force
- GRAPHS: graphical summary

Descriptive Statistics

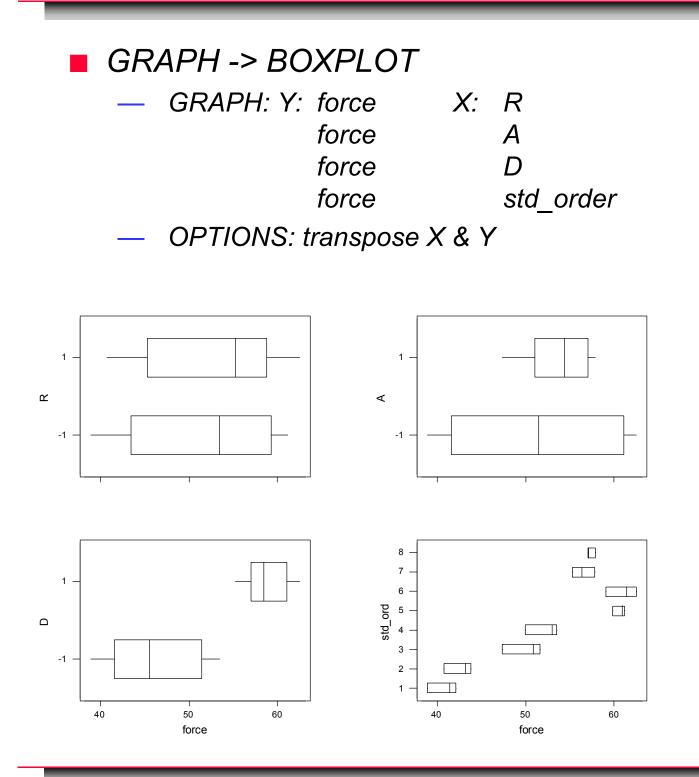


Variable: force

Anderson-Darling I	Normality Test
A-Squared:	0.743
P-Value:	0.046
Mean	52.6125
StDev	7.5178
Variance	56.5168
Skewness	-5.0E-01
Kurtosis	-1.12088
Ν	24
Minimum	38.9000
1st Quartile	44.6750
Median	54.4000
3rd Quartile	58.8000
Maximum	62.5000
95% Confidence I	nterval for Mu
49.4380	55.7870
95% Confidence Inf	erval for Sigma
5.8429	10.5456
95% Confidence Int	erval for Median
49.4496	57.8173



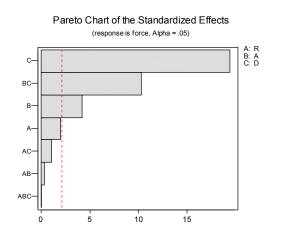
Box Plots

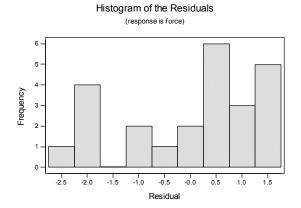


Screen Potential Causes and Discover Variable Relationships

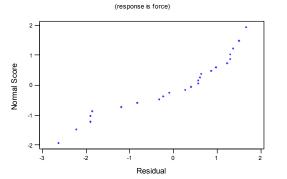


Analyzing the DOE

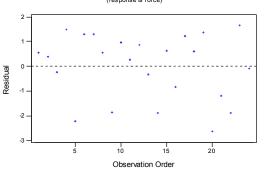




Normal Probability Plot of the Residuals



Residuals Versus the Order of the Data (response is force)



Screen Potential Causes and Discover Variable Relationships



DOE Solution for Force

Fractional Factorial Fit

Estimated	Effects and	Coeffici	ents for for	ce (coded units)
Te r m	Effect	Coef	St Dev Coef	Т Р
Constant		52.613	0.3230	162.91 0.000
R	1.292	0.646	0.3230	2.00 0.063
А	2.725	1.362	0.3230	4.22 0.001
D	12.508	6.254	0.3230	19.36 0.000
R* A	0.225	0.113	0.3230	0.35 0.732
R*D	-0.692	-0.346	0.3230	-1.07 0.300
A* D	-6.625	- 3. 312	0.3230	- 10. 26 0.000
R* A* D	0.008	0.004	0.3230	0.01 0.990

Analysis of Variance	for	force (coded	units)			
Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	Р
Main Effects	3	993.31	993.315	331.105	132.27	0.000
2-Way Interactions	3	266.52	266.518	88.839	35.49	0.000
3-Way Interactions	1	0.00	0.000	0.000	0.00	0.990
Residual Error	16	40.05	40.053	2.503		
Pure Error	16	40.05	40.053	2.503		
Tot al	23	1299.89				

Force = 52.613 + 1.362 A + 6.254 D - 3.312 AD



(as discussed in Descriptive Stats)



Also SST = 1300 with SSW (Error) = 40 and SSB = 1260

What is the Prediction Model for Force ?

Prediction Model for Standard Deviation

<u>Review</u> = "Condensed Matrix" and Main Effects Plots for Mean & StDev

The condensed matrix:

ExpCon	R1	A1	D1	Mean	StDev
1	-1	-1	-1	40.800	1.682
2	1	-1	-1	42.567	1.644
3	-1	1	-1	49.933	2.307
4	1	1	-1	52.133	1.950
5	-1	-1	1	60.633	0.737
6	1	-1	1	61.000	1.735
7	-1	1	1	56.500	1.253
8	1	1	1	57.333	0.493

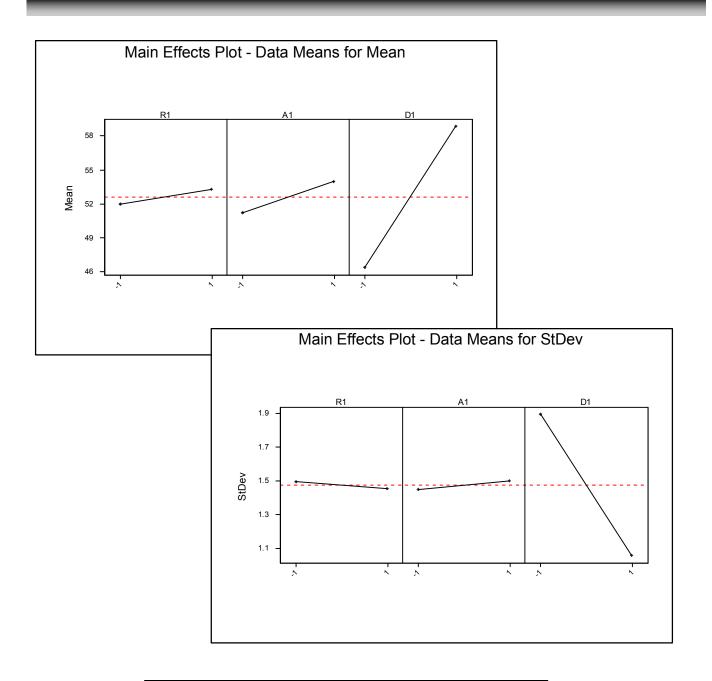
Used to obtain:

- 1. the Prediction Model for the StdDev and
- 2. the Main Effects Plots of Mean and StdDev.

StDev = 1.475



Main Effects Plots



What are the "trade-offs" ?

5 Steps: Analyzing Full Factorial Designs with Replicates

96)

Step 1	Description Plot raw data	Type of Tool Time Order Plot	What to Look For Outliers, trends, non- random patterns, obvious factor effects
		Graphical Summary	Normality, mean, standard deviation
		Box Plots, Multi- vari Plot	<i>Outliers, obvious factor effects</i>
2	Plot residuals	Time Order Plot	Non-random patterns, trends, outliers
		Scatter Plot of Residuals vs. X	<i>Megaphone shape or non-random appearance</i>
		Normal Probability Plot of Residuals	Non-"straight line" relationship, outliers
		Dot Plot of Redisuals	Bell-shape (normal distribution), outliers

5 Steps: Analyzing Full Factorial Designs with Replicates

96)

Step 3	Description Examine	Type of Tool Calculate Effects	What to Look For Magnitude and sign
	Factor Effects	Effects Plots	<i>Which effects are the biggest</i>
		Interaction Plots	Non-parallel lines
4	Confirm Impressions	Hypothesis Test (p-value)	Identify important effects
5	Summarize Conclusions		Interpret important effects in terms of physical situation

Reducing the Size of Experiments



Reducing the Size of Factorial Experiments

- Many factors potentially impact the quality of any process/product.
- The factorial strategy is an efficient approach to experimentation.
- When factors are investigated at two levels, the number of experimental runs is 2^k, where k denotes the number of factors.
- This can result in a large number of runs, even with a relatively small number of factors.



Number of Runs Required...

... for a 2 Level Factorial with k Factors

Number	Number		
of Factors	of Runs		
1	2		
2	4		
3	8		
4	16		
5	32		
6	64		
7	128		
8	256		
9	512		
10	1024		
•	•		
•	•		
•	•		
15	32,768		
•	•		
•	•		
•	•		
20	1,048,576		



Information Available from 2-level Factorial Designs

Number of Factors	Main Effects	2-way Interactions	Higher Order Interactions
1	1	_	_
2	2	1	_
3	3	3	1
4	4	6	5
5	5	10	16
б	6	15	42
7	7	21	99
8	8	28	219
9	9	36	466
10	10	45	968
•	•	•	•
•	•	•	•
•	•	•	•
15	15	105	32,647
•	•	•	•
•	•	•	•
•	•	•	•
20	20	190	1,048,365

Example of Information Available...

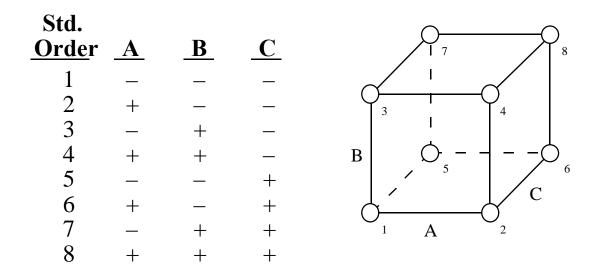
SE)

...from a Full Factorial (4 Factors)

	Number
Overall Average	1
Main effects: A B C D	4
2-way interactions: AB AC AD BC BD CD	6
3-way interactions: ABC ABD ACD BCD	4
4-way interactions: ABCD	1



Reducing the Size of a Factorial Experiment

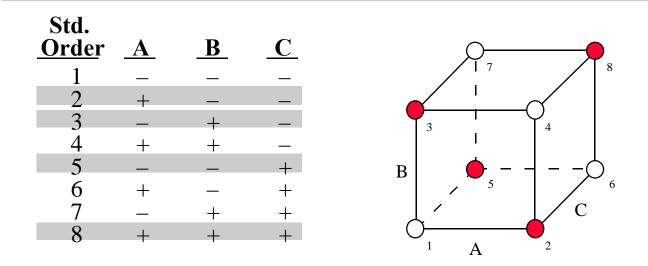


Equipment delays allow you time to run only 4 trials in the allotted time.

Which 4 trials will you choose?



Choosing the Half Fraction



We can select:

The 4 u	unsha	ded tria	als,	or		shad	ed trial	s,
Std. <u>Orde</u> r	A	B	C		Std. <u>Order</u>	A	B	C
1	_	_	_		2	+	_	_
4	+	+	_		3	-	+	_
6	+	_	+		5	_	_	+
7	_	+	+		8	+	+	+

Design	Number of runs		
Full Factorial	$2^k = 2^3 = 8$		
Half Fraction	$2^{k-1} = 2^{3-1} = 2^2 = 4$		

Half Fraction designs use *Half* the runs of Full Factorial designs.

Properties of a Properly Selected Half Fraction

The design is nicely balanced, that is, each factor is studied the same number of times at each level. (equal number of + and -)

 (\mathscr{B})

- The design collapses into a full factorial. Should any factor turn out not to matter, the result is a full factorial in the other two factors.
- The design covers much of the region of interest.



Constructing a Half Fraction for Four Factors

_ A _	B	<u> </u>	$\underline{\mathbf{D}} = \mathbf{ABC}$
—	—	—	_
+	_	_	+
—	+	-	+
+	+	_	_
—	_	+	+
+	_	+	_
—	+	+	_
+	+	+	+

Full factorial for 3 factors

- List the full factorial for three factors. This is called the base design.
- The fourth factor is assigned to the 3-factor interaction for the other three factors.
- Recall: a 3-factor interaction column is obtained by multiplying the three main effect columns. So D = ABC. Note: + x + = +

$$+ x - = -$$

so: $- x - x - = -$
 $+ x - x - = +$

General Rule for Constructing a Half Fraction for k Factors

Define the base design as a full factorial for the first k-1 factors.

 (\mathscr{B})

- Assign the kth factor to the interaction of the first k-1 factors from the base design.
- This interaction is found by multiplying the factor level settings together for the first k-1 factors from the base design.
- Number of runs = $N = 2^{k-1}$



Half Fraction of a 2⁵ Factorial

 Generate a half fraction experiment for k = 5 factors, A, B, C, D, and E.

		Factors		
<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>	E

Answers

Half Fraction of a 2⁵ Factorial

A	B	<u> </u>	D	E + + + + + - + - + + + + + + + - +
$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{A} \\ + \\ + \\ + \\ + \\ + \\ + \\ + \\ + \\ + \\ $	_	_	_	+
+	_	_	_	_
_	+	—	_	_
+	- + + - +	_		+
—	—	+		—
+	—	+		+
—	+	+		+
+	+	+		—
—	—		+	—
+	—		+	+
—	+		+	+
+	+	_	+	—
_	—	+	+	+
+	—	+	+	—
—	+ - + + - +	+	_ + + + + + + + + + + +	—
+	+	+	+	+

H





Between Full Factorial and Half Fraction Designs

Number of Effects Computed

<u>Effects</u> Mean	Full <u>Factorial</u> 1	Half <u>Fraction</u> 1	
Main Factors	5	5	
2 Factor Int.	10	10	
3 Factor Int.	10	—	
4 Factor Int.	5	—	
5 Factor Int.	_1		
Total Effects Computed	32	16 -	This is also the number of runs

• Are the additional runs worth it? What happens to the higher order interactions?



A 2-Factor Experiment with Confounded Effects

Run	Factor A	Factor B	Response
1	_	_	130
2	_	_	125
3	_	_	133
4	_	_	130
5	+	+	50
6	+	+	85
7	+	+	79
8	+	+	93

The effects of Factors A and B are confounded.

Confounding is the combining of the effects of two or more factors into one resulting number such that the magnitude of the effects of the individual factors cannot be separated.

(H)

Confounding in the Half Fraction

A	B	C	D	AB	CD
_		_	_	+	+
+	_	_	+	—	_
—	+	—	+	—	—
+	+	—	—	+	+
—	—	+	+	+	+
+	—	+	—	—	—
—	+	+	- - +	_	—
+	+	+	+	+	+
		H (I AH AC	A = 3 = 4 = 3 = 4 = 3 = 4 = 3 = 4 = 3 = 4 = 3 = 4 = 3 = 4 = 3 = 3	ACD ABD ABC CD BD)

For the half fraction, each letter must be present on one side of the equal sign or the other.

Exercise

Confounding in the Half Fraction of a 2⁵

(H)

A	B	<u>C</u>	D	$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{ABC}\mathbf{D}$
_	_	_	_	+
+	—	_	_	—
—	+	_	—	—
+	+	—	—	+
—	—	+	—	—
+	—	+	—	+
—	+	+	—	+
+	+	+	—	—
—	—	—	+	—
+	—	—	+	+
—	+	—	+	+
+	+	—	+	—
—	—	+	+	+
+	—	+	+	—
—	+	+	+	—
+	+	+	+	+

Questions

- 1. What main effect is confounded with ABCD?
- 2. What main effect is confounded with ABCE?
- 3. Prove that AB is confounded with CDE.
- 4. Guess what AC is confounded with.



Answer

Confounding in the Half Fraction of a 2⁵

- 1. E is confounded with ABCD.
- 2. D is confounded with ABCE.

3.	AB	CDE
0.	+	+
	_	_
	_	_
	+	+
	+	+
	_	_
	_	_
	+	+
	+	+
	_	_
	_	_
	+	+
	+	+
	_	_
	_	_
	+	+

4. BDE is confounded with AC.



Example

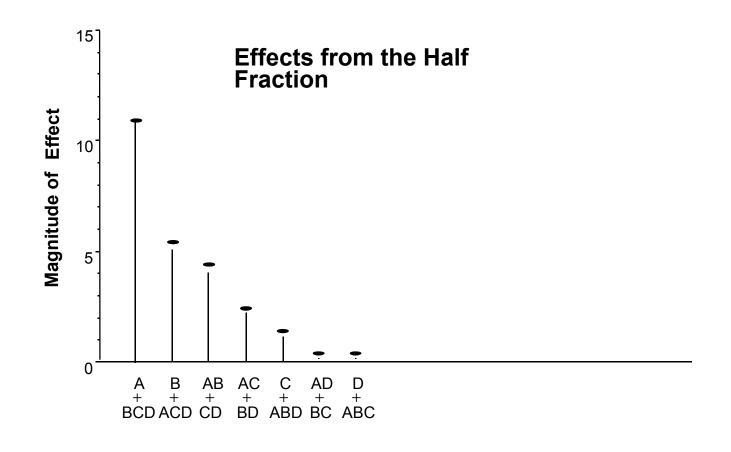
Analyzing the Full Factorial and the Half Fraction for an Electrochemical Hole Drilling Experiment

					Ι	Levels	
		_	Facto	rs	_	+	
	А		olts		94	150	
	В		ectroly		60	120	
	С		ool An		8	10	
	D) P1	ressure	;	17	23	
Te	st						
		<u> </u>	B	C	D	Diamete	r (i
1		_	_	_	_	54	
2	2	+	_	_	_	46	
3	3	_	+	_	—	62	
4		+	+	_	_	46	
5	5	_	—	+	_	53	
6		+	—	+	—	46	
7		_	+	+	—	60	
8		+	+	+	_	47	
9		_	_	_	+	56	
10		+	—	—	+	45	
11		_	+	_	+	63	
12		+	+	_	+	46	
13		_	—	+	+	50	
14		+	_	+	+	45	
15		_	+	+	+	66	
16	5	+	+	+	+	47	

Source: J. Bemesderfer, pp. 195-202.

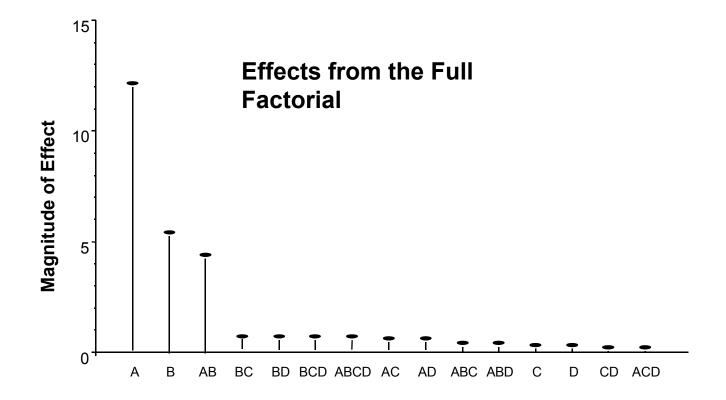


Effects Plot for the Half Fraction





Effects Plot for the Full Factorial



What is Meant by the Expression "AB + CD"

- In this experiment AB and CD are confounded.
- We have been referring to this confounding as AB = CD. We can prove this equivalence by multiplying columns from the design together.
- We estimate the effect of the AB interaction by averaging all the responses performed at the +AB level and subtracting the average of all the responses performed at the -AB level. When we do this, we are simultaneously estimating the effect of the interaction CD.
- The estimate that results is neither the AB interaction nor the CD interaction exclusively, but instead, is the sum of these interactions.
- Thus, when we refer to confounding in the design, we use = since the patterns of + and signs are identical.
- But when we compute effects, we use "+" to remind us that the effect we have calculated may be a combination of all the confounded effects.

Summary of the Half Fraction

The half fraction of a full factorial can often provide the same information as the full factorial, with only half the number of runs.

(H)

Costs
 More complicated to analyze (must understand confounding). In designs with few runs, important effects (such as 2-way interactions) are confounded.

Note: Some texts (and Minitab) call confounding aliasing.

A Strategy for Choosing the Appropriate Design

The Knowledge Line

Current State of Process Knowledge

SE)

	Low			High
Type of Design	I Main Effects	Fractional Factorial	Full Factorial	Response Surface
Usual # of Factors	>5	4–10	1–5	2-3
Purpose: • Identify	Most important factors	Some interactions	Relationships among factors	Optimal factor settings
• Estimate	Crude direction for improvement	Some interpolation	All main effects and interactions	Curvature in response, empirical models



Screen Potential Causes and Discover Variable Relationships



What are Screening Designs?

- They study the main effects of a large number of factors.
- They contain at least the same number of runs plus one as factors.
- They are useful in the early stages of investigation where it is desirable to go from a large list of factors that **may** affect the response to a small list of factors that **do** affect the response.



Example:

Design Constructing a 7-Factor Screening

How many runs do you need for a 7-Factor Screening Design?

What design is this similar to?

 Factors
 Runs

 2
 $2^2 = 4$

 3
 $2^3 = 8$

 4
 $2^4 = 16$

Screening Design for 7 Factors	A	В	С	D	Ε	F	G	≺]
Full Factorial in A, B, & C	Α	В	С	AB	AC	BC	ABC	
	_	_	_	+	+	+	_	
	+	-	-	-	—	+	+	
1. Write out the full factorial design in 3 factors.	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	
	+	+	-	+	—	-	—	
	-	—	+	+	—	-	+	
	+	_	+	-	+		—	
	-	+	+	—	—	+	—	
	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
					Create olumns alculate teractic	used to all)	
3. Assign	n 4 fao	ctors to	the col	umns c	created	above.]	

Example (cont.)

Confounding of Main Effects and 2-Factor Interactions in the 7-Factor Screening Design

H)

Starting with:

$$D = AB$$
$$E = AC$$
$$F = BC$$
$$G = ABC$$

Results in the following confounding of main effects and 2 factor interactions:



Example: 15-Factor, 16-Run Screening Design

Screening Design for 15 Factors	A	В	С	D	K	L	М	N	0	Р	E	F	G	Н	J
Full Factorial in A, B, C, & D	A	В	С	D	AB	AC	AD	BC	BD	CD	ABC	ABD	ACD	BCD	ABCD
	_	_	_	_	+	+	+	+	+	+	_	_	_	_	+
	+	_	_	_	_	_	_	+	+	+	+	+	+	_	_
	_	+	_	_	_	+	+	_	_	+	+	+	_	+	_
	+	+	-	_	+	_	-	-	-	+	_	-	+	+	+
	-	-	+	-	+	_	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	_
	+	-	+	_	_	+	-	-	+	-	_	+	-	+	+
	_	+	+	_	_	_	+	+	_	-	_	+	+	_	+
	+	+	+	_	+	+	-	+	_	-	+	_	_	_	_
	_	_	_	+	+	+	_	+	_	-	_	+	+	+	_
	+	-	_	+	_	_	+	+	-	-	+	-	_	+	+
	-	+	_	+	_	+	-	_	+	-	+	-	+	_	+
	+	+	_	+	+	_	+	_	+	_	_	+	_	—	_
	-	-	+	+	+	_	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	+
	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	_	-	+	-	—
	_	+	+	+	-	_	-	+	+	+	_	_	_	+	_
	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

- 1. Write out the full factorial design in 4 factors.
- 2. Create the columns used to calculate all interactions. They are all possible products of the first four columns.
- 3. Assign 11 factors to the columns created above.

Another Useful Screening Design

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The 2-level Plackett-Burman Designs to Study 11 Factors in 12 Runs

	A	B	С	D	Ε	F	G	Η	Ι	J	K
1	+	+	_	+	+	+	_	_	_	+	_
2	_	+	+	_	+	+	+	_	_	_	+
3	+	_	+	+	_	+	+	+	—	_	_
4	_	+	_	+	+	_	+	+	+	_	_
5	_	_	+	—	+	+	—	+	+	+	_
6	_	_	_	+	_	+	+	_	+	+	+
7	+	_	_	_	+	_	+	+	_	+	+
8	+	+	_	_	_	+	_	+	+	—	+
9	+	+	+	_	_	_	+	_	+	+	_
10	—	+	+	+	_	_	_	+	_	+	+
11	+	_	+	+	+	_	_	_	+	_	+
12	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_

When to Use Plackett-Burman Designs

- Use them when it is too costly to run the 2^k (8, 16, or 32-run) screening design.
 - *Example: 10 factors but 16-run design is too costly*

 (\mathscr{B})

Use them only in these circumstances since the "cost" of this design is the loss of information about where the two factor interactions are confounded.

Note: There are Plackett-Burman designs available for 4(i) runs where "i" is an integer.



Screening Design Selection

Number of Factors	Design
5	8-run 2 ⁵⁻¹
6-11	12-run Plackett-Burman
6-8	Resolution IV fractional factorial
16-19	20-run Plackett-Burman
20-23	24-run Plackett-Burman
24-27	28-run Plackett-Burman
16-31	32-run design based on a 2^5



Exercise

Describe Possible Designs for 6 Factors

- Suppose you have six factors that you want to investigate.
 - What designs might you consider?
 - Under what conditions would you favor each of the above designs?

Answer

Describe Possible Designs for 6 Factors

Ę

- Three possible designs covered thus far are:
 - The 64-run full factorial
 - The 32-run half fraction
 - The 8-run screening design
- The table below explains the conditions when each design is favored. The full and half fractions have similar properties.

Designs Available for 6 Factors

	Full factorial or half fraction	Screening design
State of knowledge	Reasonably high	Low
Cost of runs	Cheap	Expensive
Presence of interaction	Expect interactions	Expect few interactions
Number of factors expected to influence the response	Many	Only a few
Size of the effects you wish to detect	About the same size as the experimental error, s _p	About three times the experimental error, s _p



What About Intermediate Conditions?

For conditions which are not as extreme as the ones that favor the full factorial or the screening design, a 16-run design is available for a 6-factor experiment. This quarter fraction is the design of choice under the conditions described below.

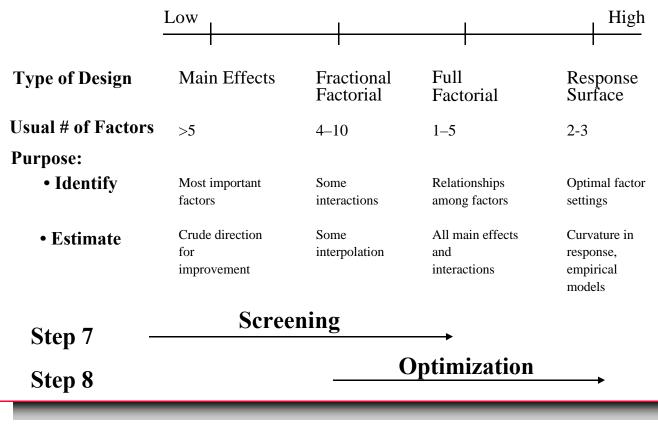
	Full factorial or half fraction	Smaller fraction (Quarter fraction)	Screening design
State of knowledge	Reasonably high	Moderate	Low
Cost of runs	Cheap	Moderate	Expensive
Presence of interaction	Expect interactions	May be 2-factor interactions; higher ones are unlikely	Expect few interactions
Number of factors expected to influence the response	Many	Unsure, few or all	Only a few
Size of the effects you wish to detect	About the same size as the experimental error, sp	About two times the experimental error, sp	About three times the experimental error, sp

Designs Available for 6 Factors

Bridging the Gap

Fractional Factorials Bridge the Gap Between Full Factorials and Screening Designs.

• Fractional factorials are the design of choice when you have already determined which factors are likely to be important and want to learn more about the effect of these factors.



Current State of Process Knowledge

Screen Potential Causes and Discover Variable Relationships



Example: A Fractional Factorial

Quarter Fraction of a $2^6 = 2^{6-2}$

Run	<u> </u>	B	<u> </u>	_ D _	E	F		
1	_	_	-	_	_	_		
2	+	_	_	_	+	_		
3	-	+	-	-	+	+		
4	+	+	_	-	_	+		
5	-	-	+	-	+	+		
6	+	-	+	-	-	+		
7	-	+	+	-	-	-		
8	+	+	+	-	+	_		
9	-	-	-	+	-	+		
10	+	—	-	+	+	+		
11	-	+	_	+	+	—		
12	+	+	—	+	_	—		
13	-	-	+	+	+	—		
14	+	-	+	+	-	_		
15	-	+	+	+	_	+		
16	+	+	+	+	+	+		
 List the full factorial for four factors. This is called the base design. (2⁶⁻² = 2⁴) The fifth factor, E, is assigned to the 3-factor interaction of A, B, and C. (E = ABC) 								

3. Likewise, the sixth factor, F, is assigned to the 3-factor interaction of B, C, and D. (F = BCD)



Summary of Creating Fractional Factorials

- The half fraction is derived by starting with a base design of a full factorial in one less than the desired number of factors, and using an interaction column (a product of columns in the base design) to create the extra column.
- Similarly, the quarter fraction is derived by starting with a base design of a full factorial in **two** less than the desired number of factors and using **two** interaction columns to create the extra columns.
- Likewise, a ¹/_{2^p} fraction is derived by starting with a base design of a full factorial in **p** less than the desired number of factors, and using **p** interaction columns to create the extra columns.

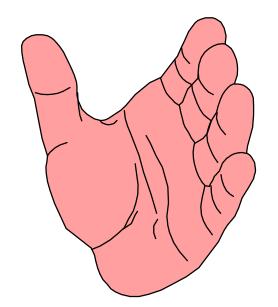


Resolution

- Understanding the Degree of Confounding in a Fractional Factorial
 - The "cost" of running fractional factorials is that effects and interactions will be confounded.
 - We use a single Roman numeral, called resolution, to describe the degree of confounding.
 - Resolution tells us the size of the effects we expect to see confounded.
 - **Resolution III designs** have main effects confounded with 2-factor and higher order interactions, but not with other main effects.
 - Resolution IV designs have main effects confounded with 3-factor and higher order interactions, but not with other main effects or 2factor interactions. In other words, main effects are clear of 2-factor interaction.
 - Resolution V designs have main effects confounded with 4-factor and higher order interactions, but not other main effects, 2- or 3-factor interactions. Two-factor interactions are confounded not with each other, but with 3-factor or higher order interactions. In other words, 2-factor interactions are clear of each other.



Resolution — "Hand" Method



- Hold up number of fingers equal to design Resolution—for <u>Resolution V</u> <u>= 5 fingers</u>.
- 2. Use other hand to grab number of fingers equal to the Main/Interaction Effects you wish to investigate for confounding—i.e., to determine what Main Effects are <u>confounded with</u>, grab one finger.
- 3. The remaining number of fingers is the lowest level of interaction effects which are confounded.

[In the example above, the result is "*4 - factor interactions* <u>and higher</u>" are confounded with Main Effects—since there are four (4) fingers remaining]

<u>Review:</u> Given a Resolution IV design, what are the second order interactions confounded with?

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- If you expect several 2-factor interactions to be important, what resolution design should you select?
- What is the advantage of a resolution V design over a resolution IV?
- What is the resolution of screening designs?



Answer Resolution

Select a design of either resolution IV or V.

- A resolution V design has all 2-factor interactions clear of each other. Thus, you will always be able to tell which 2-factor interactions are important. In a resolution IV design, 2-factor interactions are confounded together. If you get a large interaction effect, it will not always be clear which particular 2-factor interaction is the one that is important. Sometimes you can figure it out by what you know about the experiment, but sometimes additional runs are required to resolve the ambiguity.
- Screening designs are resolution III.



Selecting the Appropriate Design

	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
4	2 ³⁻¹									
8	2^3	2 ⁴⁻¹	2 ⁵⁻²	2 ⁶⁻³	2 ⁷⁻⁴					
16	2^{3} 2 times	24	2v ⁵⁻¹	2^{6-2}_{iv}	2 ⁷⁻³	2 ⁸⁻⁴ _{IV}	2°-5	2 ¹⁰⁻⁶	2 ¹¹⁻⁷	
32	2^{3} 4 times	2^4 2 times	2 ⁵	2 ⁶⁻¹ VI	2 ⁷⁻² _{IV}	2 ⁸⁻³	2 ⁹⁻⁴	2 ¹⁰⁻⁵	2 ¹¹⁻⁶	K (1/128)
64	2 ³ 8 times	2^4 4 times	2^5 2 times	2°	2 ⁷⁻¹	2_{v}^{8-2}	2 ⁹⁻³	2 ¹⁰⁻⁴	2 ¹¹⁻⁵	K (1/64)
128	2 ³ 16 times	2 ⁴ 8 times	2^5 4 times	2^{6} 2 times	27	2 ⁸⁻¹	2 ⁹⁻²	2v ¹⁰⁻³	2_{v}^{11-4}	K (1/32)
. <u></u>		R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R
		(16)	(8)	(4)	(2)	(1)	(1/2)	(1/4)	(1/8)	(1/16)

Number of Factors

<u>Legend for</u> 2_{R}^{K-P}

- 2 = Number of levels of each factor
- K = Number of factors
- P = Number of factors assigned to interactions
- K-P = Factors required to generate the basic design
- 2^{K-P}=N
- 2 = Number of runs
- R = Design Resolution



Using the Look-up Tables

- 1. An engineer has 7 factors that she wants to study at two levels. She believes that all of these factors will affect the responses of interest and that some twoway interactions are likely.
 - a) Which design should she select?
 - b) How many runs does this design have?
 - c) What size fraction is this?
 - *d)* What are 2-factor interactions confounded with in this design?
 - 2. Complete the following table:

Number of Runs	Maximum # of Factors that can be Studied at Resolution III	Maximum # of Factors that can be Studied at Resolution IV	Maximum # of Factors that can be Studied at Resolution V
4		_	_
8			_
16			
32			
64			
128			

Bonus Question

3. What design would you use to study 5 factors when you can easily afford to make 32 runs?

Using the Look-up Tables (cont.)

1. a. 2⁷⁻³_{IV}

b.
$$2^{7-3} = 2^4 = 16$$

- c. This is a $2^{-3} = 1/2^3 =$ one-eighth fraction.
- d. Since this design is resolution IV, 2-factor interactions are confounded with each other.

86)

Using the Look-up Tables (cont.)

(%)

2.	Number	Maximum # of Factors that can be Studied at	Maximum # of Factors that can be Studied at	Maximum # of Factors that can be Studied at
	of Runs	ResolutionIII	ResolutionIV	ResolutionV
	4	3	_	_
	8	7	4	_
	16	15	8	5
	32	31		* 6
	64	63		8
	128	127		

* This design is actually resolution VI.

3. Consider running the half fraction of the 5-factor design. With the additional runs that you can easily make, replicate this half fraction.

The half fraction is of resolution V. Resolution V designs are generally adequate (unless you expect 3-factor interactions), and with replication, you can additionally investigate if the factors affect the variability of the response.

Example: Raycon EDM Machine

Electrical discharge machining (EDM) removes material from a work piece by a controlled "sparkout" method, with the electrode and workpiece both submerged in a dielectric fluid. Eight controls on the panel are factors of interest.

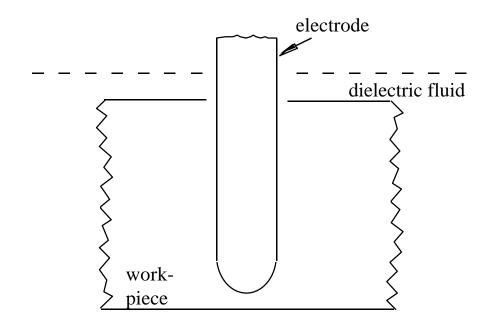


Illustration of Electrical Discharge Machining EDM Process

Adapted from Bemesderfer, John L., "The Use of Designed Experiments to Improve Productivity," General Electric Aircraft Engines, 25 September 1979, p. 56.

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Example (cont.)

Raycon EDM Machine, a 2_{IV}⁸⁻⁴ Design

(
Key Factor	Low (-)	High (+)
A-Pulse	5	11
B-Interval	250	350
C-Current	10	16
D-Arc Level	7	9
E-Arc Suppress	7	9
F-Short Delay	1	3
G-Servo Feed	14	22
H-Servo	30	60
Response		

					(ABC)	(ABD)	(ACD)	(BCD)	R	esponse	S
Run	<u>A</u> _	B	<u>C</u>	D	E	<u> </u>	G	н	Wear	Volts	Width
1	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	.075	72	15.7
2	+	_	_	-	+	+	+	_	.030	65	16.7
3	_	+	_	_	+	+	_	+	.065	66	16.0
4	+	+	_	-	_	_	+	+	.065	63	16.7
5	_	_	+	-	+	_	+	+	.135	60	17.0
6	+	_	+	-	_	+	_	+	.200	66	17.7
7	-	+	+	-	_	+	+	_	.107	64	17.1
8	+	+	+	-	+	_	_	_	.180	72	17.7
9	-	_	_	+	_	+	+	+	.065	60	15.7
10	+	_	_	+	+	_	_	+	.015	72	15.7
11	_	+	_	+	+	_	+	_	.040	65	15.7
12	+	+	_	+	_	+	_	_	.065	72	16.3
13	_	_	+	+	+	+	_	_	.140	71	17.1
14	+	_	+	+	_	_	+	_	.180	64	19.0
15	-	+	+	+	_	_	_	+	.240	66	18.4
16	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	.185	60	19.4

MINITAB FILE: Raycon1.mtw



Example (cont.)

Raycon EDM Machine Estimates for Effects

<u>Wear</u>	<u>Volts</u>	<u>Width</u>		
.1117	66.125	16.994	=	Average
.0066	1.25	0.813	=	А
.0134	-0.25	0.338	=	В
.1184	-1.50	1.863	=	С
.0091	0.25	0.337	=	D
0259	0.50	-0.163	=	E
0091	-1.25	0.013	=	F
0216	-7.00	0.338	=	G
.0191	-4.00	0.162	=	Н
.0041	0.25	-0.088	=	AB + CE + DF + GH
.0241	-1.00	0.238	=	AC + BE + DG + FH
0166	0.25	0.062	=	AD + BF + CG + EH
.0009	0.50	0.113	=	AE + BC + DH + FG
.0191	-0.75	0.237	=	AF + BD + CH + EG
.0216	-0.50	0.763	=	AG + BH + CD + EF
0166	1.00	-0.213	=	AH + BG + CF + DE





Fractional Factorial Fit

Estimated Effects and Coefficients for Wear (coded units)

Term	Effect	Coef
Constant		0.11169
A	0.00663	0.00331
В	0.01337	0.00669
С	0.11838	0.05919
D	0.00912	0.00456
Е	-0.02587	-0.01294
F	-0.00913	-0.00456
G	-0.02162	-0.01081
Н	0.01912	0.00956
A*B	0.00413	0.00206
A*C	0.02413	0.01206
A*D	-0.01662	-0.00831
A*E	0.00087	0.00044
A*F	0.01912	0.00956
A*G	0.02162	0.01081
A*H	-0.01663	-0.00831

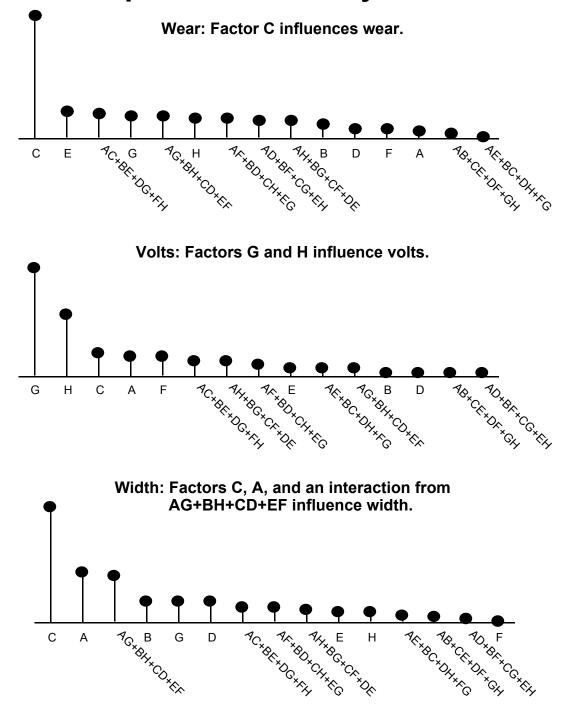
Analysis of Variance for Wear (coded units)

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Main Effects	8	0.063620	0.063620	0.007952	*	*
2-Way Interactions	7	0.007944	0.007944	0.001135	*	*
Residual Error	0	0.00000	0.000000	0.00000		
Total	15	0.071563				





for the Responses in the Raycon EDM Machine





Analyzing Volts

Fractional Factorial Fit

Estimated Effects and Coefficients for Volts (coded units)

Term	Effect	Coef
Constant		66.125
A	1.250	0.625
В	-0.250	-0.125
С	-1.500	-0.750
D	0.250	0.125
Е	0.500	0.250
F	-1.250	-0.625
G	-7.000	-3.500
Н	-4.000	-2.000
A*B	0.250	0.125
A*C	-1.000	-0.500
A*D	0.250	0.125
A*E	0.500	0.250
A*F	-0.750	-0.375
A*G	-0.500	-0.250
A*H	1.000	0.500

Analysis of Variance for Volts (coded units)

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Main Effects	8	283.00	283.00	35.375	*	*
2-Way Interactions	7	12.75	12.75	1.821	*	*
Residual Error	0	0.00	0.00	0.000		
Total	15	295.75				



Analyzing Width

Fractional Factorial Fit

Estimated Effects and Coefficients for Width (coded units)

Term	Effect	Coef
Constant		16.9938
A	0.8125	0.4063
В	0.3375	0.1687
C	1.8625	0.9313
D	0.3375	0.1687
Е	-0.1625	-0.0812
F	0.0125	0.0063
G	0.3375	0.1688
Н	0.1625	0.0812
A*B	-0.0875	-0.0438
A*C	0.2375	0.1187
A*D	0.0625	0.0312
A*E	0.1125	0.0562
A*F	0.2375	0.1187
A*G	0.7625	0.3813
A*H	-0.2125	-0.1062

Analysis of Variance for Width (coded units)

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	Р
Main Effects	8	18.095	18.095	2.2619	*	*
2-Way Interactions	7	3.054	3.054	0.4363	*	*
Residual Error	0	0.000	0.000	0.0000		
Total	15	21.149				

Determining Which Interaction Affects the Response

There are two choices:

- Foldover
 - We can repeat a similar design with all or some of the signs changed. The resulting design combined with the existing one will have fewer confounded interactions.

(%)

- Perform a few additional runs
 - Run a small number of runs to figure out which interaction is affecting the response
- Both of these techniques are not too complicated, but slightly beyond the scope of this course, and we suggest you get assistance should such a situation arise in your experiment.

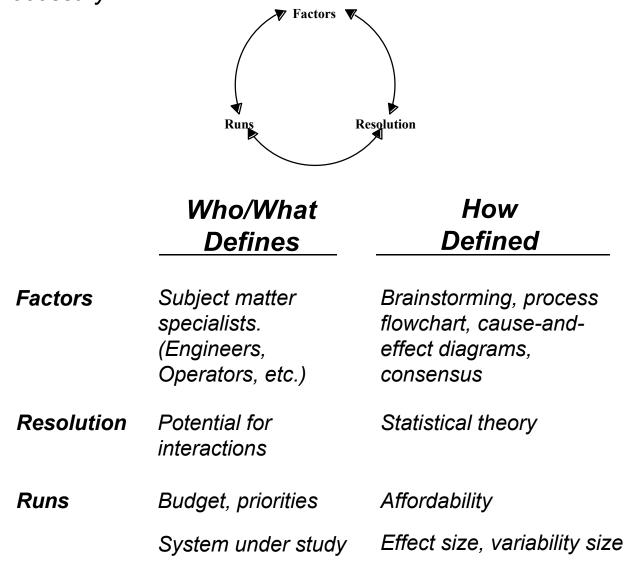
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Selecting an Experimental Design



Selecting an Experimental Design

Experimenters would generally like to study many factors, at high resolution, in a few runs. But often it is not possible to meet these desires simultaneously and trade-offs are necessary.





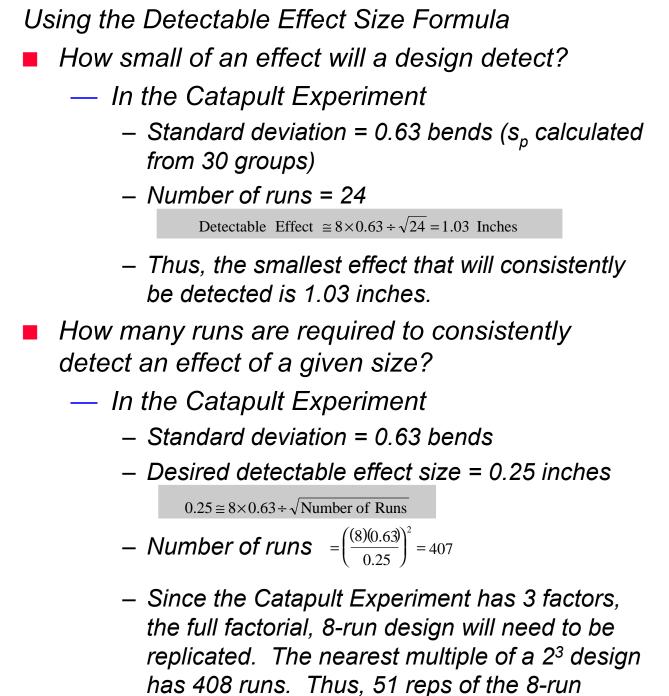
Detectable Effect Size

- What is the smallest effect we can consistently detect with the current number of experimental runs?
- First we must identify the current level of variability (standard deviation) for each response variable.
- Information on the standard deviation of experimental variability can be obtained from:
 - Prior experiments
 - Statistical process control charts
 - Pilot runs
 - Similar processes
 - Educated guess
 - Estimate s_p using s_{st}
- We can then compute the smallest effect size which can be detected 19 out of 20 times (power = 95%) for any 2-level design with the following formula:

Detectable Effect Size (DES)* $\cong 8 \times (\text{Std. Dev.}) \div \sqrt{\text{Number of Runs}}$

*Source: Wheeler, R.E. "Portable Power". Technometrics. Vol. 16. 1974. p. 193.





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Examples

Using the Detectable Effect Size Formula cont.

- How does the detectable effect size relate to the number of runs when the standard deviation is unknown?
 - Plugging s_p into the formula and solving for the detectable effect size in s_p units yields:

<u>No. of Runs</u>	Detectable Effect	
8	2.8 s _p	0
16	$2 s_p$	$DES = \frac{8}{\sqrt{NT}} s_p$
32	$1.4 s_{p}$	V N I
64	1 s _p	

Thus, a 64-run design will consistently detect an effect only if it is larger than or equal to the standard deviation of the response.

How to Select an Experimental Design

(H)

- Select the number of factors (k) to be studied.
- Decide on the minimum required Resolution (R).
 - If you are trying to screen the list of factors to determine which show large effects, a Resolution III design should be sufficient
 - If instead, you need to understand the interactions between factors, a Resolution IV or V design will be necessary
 - Use a Resolution V design over a Resolution IV when you expect a lot of important 2-factor interactions.
- Using k and R, select a design from page 41 of the previous tabbed section (Reducing the Size of Experiments) or the "Display Available Designs" option under DOE P Create Factorial Design in Minitab. This gives the minimum number of runs (N) required to satisfy k and R.



How to Select an Experimental Design (cont.)

- Evaluate the selected minimum number of runs (N).
 - Consider budget and priorities
 - Evaluate detectable effect size (DES): DES = $8 \times ($ Std. Dev. $)/\sqrt{N}$
 - Use s_{st} for s_p if s_p can not be estimated
 - If DES is too large, increase N by evaluating the number of runs necessary to achieve desired DES:
 - $N = [8 \times (Std. Dev. / Desired DES)]^2$
 - Achieve this increased N either by choosing a larger fraction or replicating your design
- 6 Check for compatibility among k, R, and N.
 - If minimum R is not achievable, decrease k or R, or increase N
 - If more than the minimum N is required to detect the desired effect size, replicate the design or increase k or R
 - If k, R, and N are compatible but there is no replication, add center points. (However, center points do not affect the detectable effect size)

How to Select an Experimental Design (cont.)

See if the neighboring designs in the table offer a significant advantage.

(H)

- Example 1: If you have selected the 2⁶⁻²_{IV} design, you can add up to two more factors and still have a design which is resolution IV. You may want to try to consider adding additional factors, since there is little cost in terms of what you can estimate from the design. Here you can increase k with no change in R or N.
- Example 2: If you have selected the 2⁵ design you can, for the same number of runs, instead do the 2⁵⁻¹ design, replicated. Here you can sacrifice a little in R and get the benefits of a replicated design.

Don't Run The Design If It Won't Give You What You Want!



Example: Design Selection I

- Dana has identified 11 factors that she would like to investigate. She is concerned that a few 2-factor interactions may be important, so she wants a Resolution IV design. Due to budget constraints she can afford about 21 runs. She wants to detect effects which are 1.5 times the pooled standard deviation.
 - 1 Number of factors, k = 11.
 - 2 Minimum required Resolution, R = IV.
 - 3 The design is _____ with N = _____
 - 4 What is the Detectable Effect Size for 21 runs? $8s_p \div \sqrt{21} = 1.75s_p$ (doesn't make 1.5 goal) What is the Detectable Effect Size for 32 runs $8s_p \div \sqrt{32} = 1.41s_p$ (makes 1.5 goal) What is the fewest number of runs required to achieve $DES = 1.5s_p$? $N = (8 \div 1.5)^2 = 29$ runs

5 Compatible?	k	R	Ν	Design De	tectable Effect
No!	11	IV	32	2 ¹¹⁻⁶	1.4s _p
	8	IV	16 + 5 c.p.	2 ⁸⁻⁴ IV	2.0s _p
	11	III	16 + 5 c.p.	2 ¹¹⁻⁷	2.0s _p
	11	III	20	Plackett- Burman 20 run	1.8s _p



Example: Design Selection II

David is experimenting with a process where runs are cheap. The pooled standard deviation is about 2.5 and he wants to detect an effect of 2.5 or greater. In a previous experiment he has identified 5 factors that he wants to investigate along with all 2-factor interactions.

- 1. Number of factors, k = ____.
- 2. Minimum required resolution, R = ____.
- 3. The design is _____ with N = ____ runs.
- 4. Number of runs
 - a. The budget is not a concern.
 - b. Detectable Effect Size = 8 x 2.5 $\div \sqrt{16}$ = 5.
 - c. N for desired DES = $[8 \times 2.5 \div 2.5]^2 = 64$ runs.
- 5. Compatible?

k	R	<u>N</u>	Design	Detectable Effect
5	V	16	$2_{\rm V}^{5-1}$	5
5	V	64	2 ⁵⁻¹ (4 reps)	2.5
5	full	64	2 ⁵ (2 reps)	2.5

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Experimenter's Checklist



Experimenter's Checklist

• Pr	eliminaries:
a	Identify the budgetary restrictions for the project.
b	Examine the literature and past investigations in this area.
0 Id	entify Responses, Factors, and Factor Levels:
Сс	Select one or more measurable responses.
d	Operationally define the measurement procedure and estimate the variability of each response.
e	Identify all of the factors that may impact the response of interest.
f	Examine all pairs of factors for those that may be coupled (interact).
g	Decide where this project fits on the Knowledge Line and the minimum resolution required to move it up.
h	Set the high and low levels for each factor.
i	Review combinations of factor levels for potential problem.

Experimenter's Checklist (cont.)

86)

Sele	ect Design:
j	Select a design that allows you to examine the desired number of factors with the required resolution for the current state of knowledge.
k	Decide on the number of experimental trials allowed by the budget using the 25% rule or other constraints.
<u> </u>	Calculate a detectable effect size for each response variable.
m	If it is desirable to detect a smaller effect, calculate a new number of experimental trials and re-examine the budget.
🗌 n	Build some replication into the final design, if possible.
0	Consider whether center points should be added to the design.
4 Rar	ndomize the Run Order:
p	Examine the factors and the physical layout of the experiment to see if restrictions on the randomization are necessary.
 q	Control any factors not in the experiment that can be controlled (held constant).
r	Randomize over any factors not in the experiment that cannot be controlled.
S	Select the materials for the experimental samples at random from the available inventory.
🗌 t	Randomize the experimental trials consistent with any restrictions that may be necessary.

Experimenter's Checklist (cont.)

96)

6 Colle	ect the Data:
u	Prepare a written procedure and data collection form with room for all pertinent information, including written comments.
v	Schedule the needed machines, technicians, materials, etc.
w	If necessary, provide training to anyone involved in doing the experiment, including those who randomize and run the tests, take measurements, etc.
x	Label and save all samples and results if possible.
у	Monitor the performance of the experiment carefully (be there). Keep a log book of events, especially deviations from the plan.
z	Review the raw data as it is collected and correct any mistakes immediately.
6 Ana	lyze the Data:
🗌 a	Plot the raw data in various ways.
b	If the experiment includes replications, compute averages, standard deviations, and residuals for each experimental condition and plot them in various ways.
C	Compute the factor effects and interactions and plot them in various ways.
d	Where useful, develop a prediction model to relate factors to responses.
e	When possible and appropriate, confirm impressions from plots with appropriate statistical analyses.

Experimenter's Checklist (cont.)

86)

Draw, Verify, and Report Conclusions:				
f	Interpret the results of the experiment using all known information (physical and statistical).			
g	Formulate and write the conclusions in simple, non- statistical language intelligible to peers.			
🗌 h	Verify the conclusions with additional runs.			
🗌 i	If appropriate, go on to the next iteration of study.			
j	Prepare a written report of the conclusions with additional runs.			
k	If appropriate, go on to the next iteration of study.			
	Prepare a written report of the conclusions and recommendations.			
m	Review progress and make recommendations to your team.			





a Identify the budgetary restrictions for the project.

(H)

b Examine the literature and past investigations in this area.

Is a Designed Experiment Appropriate?

- Not if preliminary work reveals an obvious cause and a solution exists. DON'T DO IT!
- Experiment if:
 - A root cause of the problem cannot be found

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- Root causes have been found and removed, but further improvement is desired
- Many potential factors affect the response
- You want to know (quantify) the relationship between the factors and the response

- c Select one or more measurable responses.
- d Operationally define the measurement procedure and estimate the variability of each response.

(%)

- e Identify all of the factors that may impact the response of interest.
- f Examine all pairs of factors for those that may be coupled (interact).
- g Decide where this project fits on the Knowledge Line and the minimum resolution required to move it up.
- h Set the high and low levels for each factor.
- i Review combinations of factor levels for potential problems.

Selecting Response Variables

- What is the most important response or key quality characteristic?
- Is it measurable? If not:
 - Select a substitute response that measures a property that is related to the desired response

(%)

- Several substitutes may be needed to adequately describe the desired response
- Collect data on all responses of interest to maximize information return on the experiment.
- Where possible, consider variability as a response variable. This requires replications!
- It is often helpful to define the direction for improvement for each response:
 - Smaller is better
 - Larger is better
 - On target is better

Response Measurement Systems

(%)

 There are two types of response variables. Qualitative: Opinion, ratings , rankings, etc. Quantitative: Measurement instrument 				
Effective measuren — Well defined:	nent processes must be: Clear operational definition			
— Stable:	Regular maintenance and			
calibration schedule				
 Accurate: "Agree" with an acceptable calibration standard 				
— Repeatable:	Same under same conditions			
— Reproducible: condit	Same under different ions			
Estimate the variability of the response.				
An experiment can be run to evaluate the				

measurement process and to understand which factors affect it most.

- Called a gage reproducibility and repeatability study
- Identifies sources of appraiser and instrument variation

For details on how to evaluate your measurement processes, see ASQC's <u>Measurement Systems</u> <u>Analysis: Reference Manual</u> in the reference list.

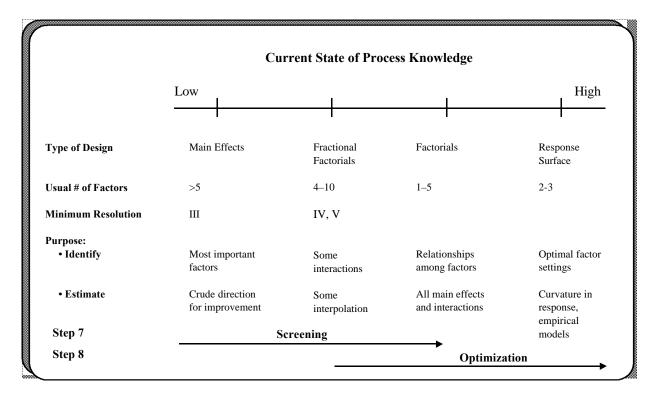


Choosing Factors for the Experiment

- Visit the work area and observe the process or examine a process flow diagram to generate ideas on what factors might influence the experiment.
- Arrange a formal brainstorming meeting with all the people who might have ideas on which factors might have an influence.
- Use a cause-and-effect diagram to organize the list of potential factors, to prevent you from overlooking some, and to help select the ones to experiment with.
- Categorize the selected factors as controllable or uncontrollable.
- Identify pairs of factors that might interact.

Assessing the Current State of Knowledge

- Have all factors that affect the process/product/ equipment been identified?
- Is the effect of the factors on the response understood?
- Is there a coupling or interaction between some of the factors?
- Is the process/product/equipment performing at its peak or optimum level?



Strategies for Moving Up the Knowledge Line to Optimization

- Spend 25% of budget on the first experiment.
- Plan on several experiments.
- Experimentation is sequential:
 - Start with many factors to find the few important ones
 - Look for interactions between important factors. Look for curvature in the response
 - Find "best" settings of each factor. Establish the relationship between variables.

"Real life problem solving using statistical methods is a dynamic process that often is like detective work... 'Quality detectives' follow hunches and get inspired by evidence collected in conjunction with their subject matter expertise. Data inspire them to follow new leads in pursuit of never-ending quality and productivity improvement. It is with a sequential use of experimental design and analysis that the real power of statistics applied to industrial problems is released."*

> *Source: Bisgaard, S. "The Quality Detective: A Case Study," Center for Quality and Productivity Improvement. Report No. 32. June 1988.



Setting Levels for Each Factor

"To find out what happens to a system when you interfere with it, you have to interfere with it (not just passively observe it)." - George E.P. Box

Setting quantitative factor levels requires subject matter knowledge and engineering intuition.

- Set them far enough apart so that if the factor is active it will have a fair chance of being detected
- Set them further apart than you would normally feel comfortable with
- Don't set them so far apart that the resulting product or response variable will be of no value (e.g., significantly non-linear)
- Consider purpose of experiment (e.g., optimization will require broader ranges than simply determining which X's have what effect on the current process)
- Setting qualitative factor levels is simply a matter of deciding, for example, which vendor is "low" and which is "high"
- Sometimes the low ("-") level is used to represent the standard settings. However, it is better to make sure quantitative settings are logical, i.e., higher values are "+" and lower values are "-", regardless of which setting is standard.

Reviewing Factor Level Combinations for Potential Problems

- Are any combinations potentially hazardous (maybe all factors set at higher levels)?
- Will any combinations produce useless results (maybe all factors set at low levels)?
- If there is a questionable factor combination you can:
 - Run it first to check it,
 - Adjust the levels, or
 - Reassign the factors so that the problem combination does not appear in the design.
- Do any combinations result in scrapped parts? (consider economics).

Other Considerations for Good Experimental Procedure

- Try to incorporate the range of operating conditions into your experiment in a controlled way. If you use different machines, materials, or operators in production, introduce these variables as factors in your experiment.
- If you suspect uncontrolled factors to be affecting the response in your experiment, at least measure these variables. For example, if you suspect the temperature of the environment affects the response, but you decide not to control it, you can record the temperature for each run. In the analysis of your experiment, you can look for a relationship between the response and temperature.
- If your initial experiments are performed under carefully controlled conditions, be prepared to do some later experiments under conditions more like those over which you hope the results to hold.

Note: Paying attention to these items will increase the likelihood that conclusions will verify.

3 Select Design

- j Select a design that allows you to examine the desired number of factors with the required resolution for the current state of knowledge.
- k Decide on the number of experimental trials allowed by the budget using the 25% rule or other constraints.
- Calculate a detectable effect size for each response variable.
- m If it is desirable to detect a smaller effect, calculate a new number of experimental trials and re-examine the budget.
- n Build some replication into the final design, if possible.
- Consider whether center points should be added to the design.

Replication

Definition: Multiple execution of all or part of the experimental process with the same factor settings.

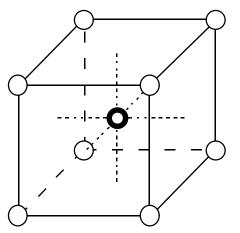
(H)

- It is not the same as multiple measurements on a single piece or lot
- Why?
 - To measure experimental variability so we can decide whether the difference between responses is due to the change in factor levels (an induced special cause) or to common cause variability
 - To see more clearly whether or not a factor is important
 - To obtain two responses for each set of experimental conditions
 - Location
 - Spread

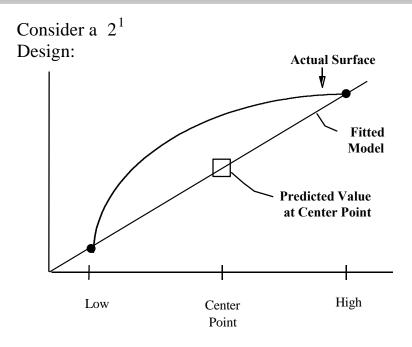


What are Center Points?

- Center Points: Runs performed with all factors set halfway between their high and low level.
 - Used to obtain genuine replication without repeating all the experimental conditions
 - Usually replicated several times to estimate experimental variability
 - Valid for quantitative factors only.
 Represented by "0" (halfway between "-" and "+")
 - Used also to check for curvature or a nonlinear response



Check for Curvature in Designs with Center Points



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- The predicted value at the center point is the average of the observed value at the low and high points.
- If some experimental runs were actually made at the center point, the difference between the average of the observations at the center point and the average of the factorial points could be used to estimate how much curvature was present.



Two Ways to Order Center Points

Option 1: Add the number of center points to the total number of conditions and completely randomize all the runs.

Option 2: Run the center point first and insert the others evenly spaced throughout the remaining runs.

Option 2 is preferred because it provides a better: Estimate of experimental variability across the entire experiment.

Detection of lurking variables.

Example of Ordering Center Points

Given a 16-Run Experiment with four additional center points

- Option 1:
 - Label the center points as conditions 17, 18, 19, and 20.

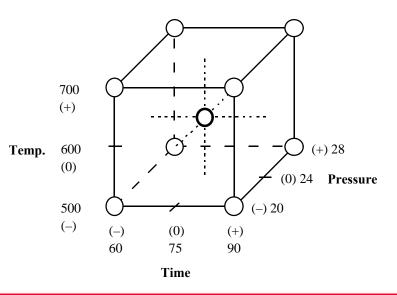
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- Completely randomize 20 runs.
- Option 2:
 - Randomize the order of the 16 runs.
 - Determine at what interval to insert the center points:
 - 20 runs divided by 3 equals 6.7
 - Insert a center point every 6 runs, i.e., at run order 1, 7, 13, and 19.
 - *Re-number the order of all runs accordingly.*

Example:

Center Points for a 2³ Design

		Code	ed Setting	gs	Actual Settings						
	Std. Order	A	<u>_B_</u>	C	A Time	B 	C Pressure_				
	1	_	_	_	60	500	20				
	2	+	_	_	90	500	20				
	3	_	+	_	60	700	20				
Base	4	+	+	_	90	700	20				
Design	5	_	_	+	60	500	28				
	6	+	_	+	90	500	28				
	7	_	+	+	60	700	28				
	8	+	+	+	90	700	28				
	9	0	0	0	75	600	24				
Center	10	0	0	0	75	600	24				
Points	11	0	0	0	75	600	24				
	12	0	0	0	75	600	24				



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Curvature Check

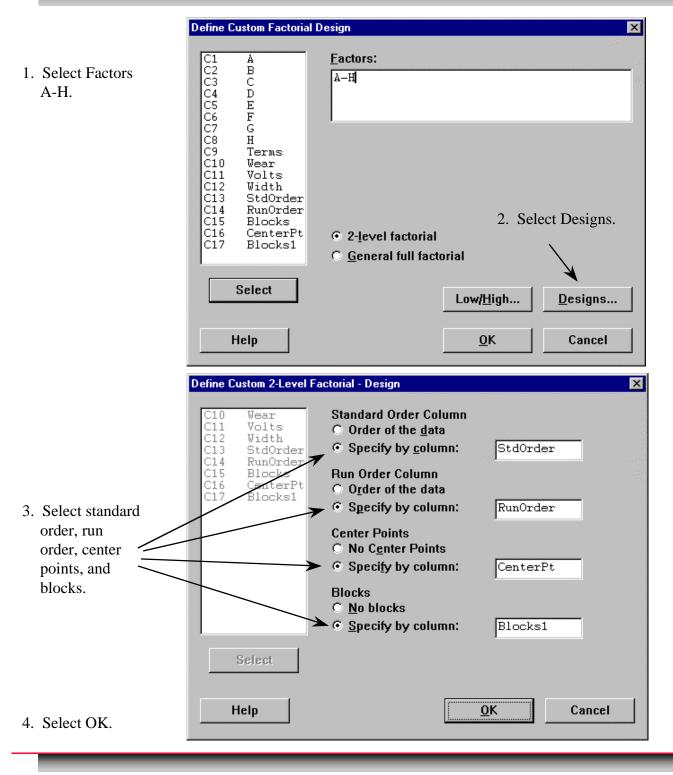
For the Raycon EDM Machine Experiment, is there curvature with Width?

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19	0.165000	58	18.4000	19		19	1	0	
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Minitab Input



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Screen Potential Causes and Discover Variable Relationships

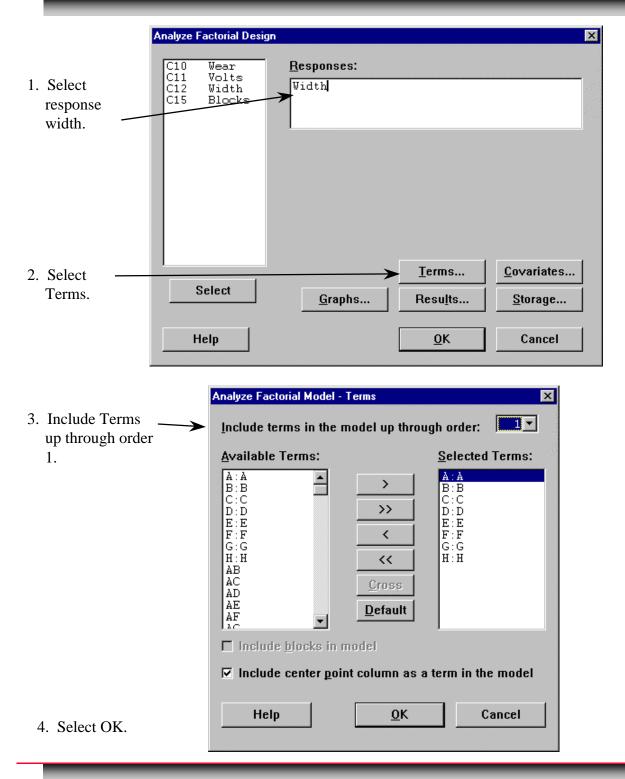
Analyze the Factorial Design

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17	18	0.114000	60	18.3000	17	1	7	1	0	
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Fit a model to t	he experiment	tal data								

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Analysis of Variance for Width (coded units)

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Main Effects	8	18.0950	18.0950	2.2619	5.93	0.008
Curvature	1	3.0917	3.0917	3.0917	8.10	0.019
Residual Error	9	3.4344	3.4344	0.3816		
Lack of Fit	7	3.0544	3.0544	0.4363	2.30	0.337
Pure Error	2	0.3800	0.3800	0.1900		
Total	18	24.6211				

 H_o : No Curvature H_a : Curvature is Significant $< q < \alpha$ Note that the p-value for curvature is 0.019. Therefore, we conclude that there is significant curvature.



Curvature: Now What?

If we conclude that curvature is unimportant, then

- we are in a relatively flat region of the response surface
- we can move in the direction of improvement. (Extrapolation with prediction model)
- we can verify predictions with experimentation

If we conclude that curvature is important, then

- even interpolation with the prediction model is suspect
- further experimentation in the current region should be done to build a better model
- a response surface design is required (three or more levels), but is not covered here



Curvature Check Exercise

Using the file called Raycon2.mtw, conduct a check for curvature on both Volts and Wear.

%

DOE for Variances

Use the std deviation as the response to determine s-hat equation

Fractional Factorial Fit

Estimated Effects and Coefficients for std dev

Term	Effect	Coef
Constant		7.500
Pin	5.000	2.500
Start	-3.000	-1.500
Pin*Start	-1.000	-0.500

 $\hat{S} = 7.5 + (2.5)A - (1.5)B - (0.5)AB$

Analysis of Variance for std dev

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS
Main Effects	2	34.000	34.000	17.000
2-Way Interactions	1	1.000	1.000	1.000
Residual Error	0	0.000	0.000	0.000
Total	3	35.000		

Analyzing the Results of the DOE:

Determine the optimal settings

We can use the prediction model for the mean (Y-hat) to determine the average Y for given values of X within our experimental range. Using the s-hat equation, we can determine how the factors should be set to minimize the variation.



For the catapult . . .

 $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = 195 + 15(\text{Start Angle}) + 10(\text{Start Angle x Pin Position})$

 $\hat{S} = 7.5 + 2.5$ (PinPosition) - 1.5 (Start Angle) - 0.5 (Start Angle x PinPosition)

Our initial goal was to determine which variables have the biggest effect on how far the ball travels. From the analysis, we determined that start angle had the biggest effect on the average distance. Pin Position had no effect on the mean, except as an interaction. Pin Position does affect the standard deviation. Less variation is observed at the low level (-1) for pin position. If we wanted to launch the ball consistently to an average distance (Y-hat) of 197 inches, we would fix pin position at the -1 setting and solve the equation for start angle. Note that these equations must be solved used the coded (-1, or +1) units, then converted to actual units!! For the catapult . . .



 $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = 195 + 15(\text{Start Angle}) + 10(\text{Start Angle x Pin Position})$

 $\hat{S} = 7.5 + 2.5$ (PinPosition) - 1.5 (Start Angle) - 0.5 (Start Anglex PinPosition)

197 = 195+ 15 (Start Angle) + 10(Start Angle x (-1))

= 195 +5 (Start Angle)

2 = 5(Start Angle)

0.4 = Start Angle

Converting from the coded units:

At these settings (-1pin, 0.4 SA), we would predict a standard deviation of:

S-hat = 7.5 - 2.5 - 1.5(.4) + 0.5(0.4) = 4.6



4 Randomize the Run Order

- p Examine the factors and the physical layout of the experiment to see if restrictions on the randomization are necessary.
- **q** Control any factors not in the experiment that can be controlled (held constant).
- r Randomize over any factors not in the experiment that cannot be controlled.
- s Select the materials for the experimental samples at random from the available inventory.
- t Randomize the experimental trials consistent with any restrictions that may be necessary.



The Experimenter's Insurance

- Randomization: Assign the order in which to run the experimental conditions using a random mechanism.
- Benefits: Prevents the effect of a lurking variable from being mistakenly attributed to another factor. Therefore, valid statistical conclusions can be drawn in spite of lurking variables.
- Restricted Randomization: Sometimes it is impossible to completely randomize all the runs. Do the best you can. The trade-off is losing the insurance of valid conclusions.
- To guard against known lurking variables, you can
 - Hold them constant
 - Randomize

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- Changes over time
 - Etch bath degradation
 - Tool wear
 - Instrument drift
 - Operator learning curve
 - Shifts (day, night, graveyard)
- Changes in experimental material
 - Sick chickens
 - Sample aging
 - Different vendors or batches
- Change in plans
 - Equipment availability
 - Premature stopping of experiment

Control the factors you can and randomize for protection against the rest.



Using a Random Number Table

- Select an appropriate table for N, the number of runs in the experiment.
- Close your eyes to pick a column.
- The column of numbers represents the order in which to run the experimental conditions. For example, if you choose the first column, the first run of your experiment will be condition 8. The second run will be condition 12. The last run will be condition 2.
- Cross off the column you used and select a different one next time.

	Std. Order #									Ran	dom	Orde	ers								
	1	8	2	7	7	4	1	14	9	5	9	15	8	16	4	9	12	12	1	9	3
	2	12	7	15	13	15	14	12	10	6	8	13	4	11	14	4	6	11	4	1	6
	3	1	12	16	12	14	15	6	6	8	6	5	3	7	6	3	16	7	12	8	8
	4	11	16	5	6	7	4	3	11	2	5	9	11	5	15	12	11	2	10	3	10
	5	13	5	10	11	16	12	4	15	11	3	1	12	14	8	1	7	4	8	11	2
a s	6	10	11	6	4	9	2	2	5	3	13	3	7	2	2	13	9	13	11	15	4
Experimental Conditions	7	15	9	9	16	11	10	1	8	7	12	7	1	6	3	8	15	16	9	6	12
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	13	7	10	11	10	3	7	16	16	1	11	6	5	12	10	7	8	6	3	14	7
	14	16	13	14	9	5	9	11	7	14	14	16	9	13	5	6	3	10	13	4	15
	15	6	4	12	8	2	13	15	13	4	16	4	16	10	16	14	13	15	16	16	14
	16	2	1	13	3	12	5	8	14	16	4	8	14	3	1	15	10	9	14	2	1

L



- u Prepare a data collection form with room for all pertinent information, including written comments.
- Schedule the needed machines, technicians, materials, etc.
- If necessary, provide training to anyone involved in doing the experiment, including those who randomize and run the tests, take measurements, etc.
- x Label and save all samples and results if possible.
- y Monitor the performance of the experiment carefully (be there). Keep a log book of events, especially deviations from the plan.
- z Review the raw data as it is collected and correct any mistakes immediately.

- a Plot the raw data in various ways.
- b If the experiment includes replications, compute averages, standard deviations, and residuals for each experimental condition and plot them in various ways.
- c Compute the factor effects and interactions and plot them in various ways.
- d Where useful, develop a prediction model to relate factors to responses.
- e When possible and appropriate, confirm impressions from plots with appropriate statistical analyses.



Draw, Verify and Report Conclusions

- f Interpret the results of the experiment using all known information (physical and statistical).
- g Formulate and write the conclusions in simple, non-statistical language intelligible to peers.
- h Verify the conclusions with additional runs.
- i If appropriate, go on to the next iteration of study.
- j Prepare a written report of the conclusions with additional runs.
- k If appropriate, go on to the next iteration of study.
- Prepare a written report of the conclusions and recommendations.
- m Review progress and make recommendations to your team.



Verify Conclusions

- Definition: Performing additional runs to confirm that the conclusions drawn from the experiment are correct. There are several reasons why improvement we see in an experiment may not prove to be attainable in the future:
 - We may not understand the response correctly. We may be misled by the design's confounding or the response may be too complex to represent with a simple factorial model.
 - Conclusions may depend on unknown conditions present during experimentation.
 - Differences between laboratory and production environment or equipment may affect the results. This is commonly referred to as scale-up differences.
 - Before spending time and money to implement the conclusions from an experiment, it is wise to verify them. This verification is done before a solution is implemented in the Control phase.

Why Don't Experiments Verify Conclusions?

Reason #1: Response Not Correctly Understood

- It is possible that an effect we attributed to a particular main effect or interaction may be in fact due to some other term. If there was an ambiguity in your analysis, you may want to go back and consider other options in interpreting confounded effects.
- It is also possible (but uncommon) that the simple factorial analysis has not done a good job at representing the behavior of the response in the range we have studied. If the response variable moves up and down repeatedly over the range under study, we will not be able to approximate it very well with our simple analysis.

Why Don't Tests Verify Conclusions?

Reason #2: Unknown Conditions Present During Experimentation

- There are an infinite number of things that can change between when we run the experiment and when we verify the results. One or more of these changes, that we may not even be aware of, may have an important affect on the response. Some examples are given below:
 - Ambient temperature changes
 - Different raw material uses
 - Slightly modified procedure
 - Measurement equipment drifts
 - Deterioration of chemical baths
- If your results fail to verify, investigate to see if any changes of the type mentioned above have occurred. Be on the look out for differences between then and now that may be having some effect on the response. If you find a likely culprit, it may be useful to run a small experiment to see if it is, in fact, affecting the response.

Why Don't Tests Verify Conclusions?

Reason #3: Scale-up Differences

- Laboratory results sometimes fail to verify in production due to scale-up differences. Often in the lab, we set up conditions that are quite different than the conditions under which we hope the results will apply. We are very careful to hold all unstudied factors constant, to use the purest of materials, the most careful procedures, the best machinery, small batch sizes, etc.
- When we "scale-up" and try to apply the results to less controlled conditions, often the results do not verify.
- Be on guard for the kinds of differences mentioned above and investigate if your production results fail to verify.

How to Verify an Experiment

There are two primary ways to verify an experiment

Repeat the entire experiment or run a similar one. For example, a similar experiment might be to select only the factors with the largest effects and run a larger fraction in these factors.

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Identify the "best" operating conditions from the experimental results. (These may or may not be a run we have made.) Make several runs at these conditions to see if they perform as expected. If feasible, use a control chart on the response and alternate between stretches at the original and "best" conditions and look for a signal of a special cause on the chart.

Or, you can run another designed experiment with the "best" settings of the important factors as one corner of the experiment. Make relatively small changes from the "best" settings for the factor levels, always moving in the direction of improvement for each factor. This would allow for verification of the experimental results as well as examination of the sensitivity of the response to small changes in the important factors.

Other Designs for Experiments

Design for Experiments

Type of Design

Full Factorial All factors at 2 levels All factors at 3 (or more) levels Factors at mixed levels

Fractional Factorial 2 levels 3 or more levels Mixed levels

Screening Fractional factorials Plackett-Burman "Taguchi Methods"

Response Surface Central Composite designs Box Behnken designs

Purpose

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Supplies information on all factors and interactions. No confounding.

Reduces the number of runs by confounding information on interactions.

Finds which of many factors are most important.

Optimizes the settings of the factors when curvature exists in the response.

Design for Experiments (cont.)

Type of Design

Purpose

Blocked Designs One blocking factor with 2, 4, or 8 levels One or more blocking factors (complete, incomplete, split plot, Latin Squares, etc.)

Controls known sources of variation that are not intrinsically of interest. Handles difficult randomization: some factors cannot be changed as easily as others.

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Components of Variation

Identifies sources of variation in measurements. Example: between engines, between test cells, within test cells.

EVOP (Evolutionary Operation)

Mixture

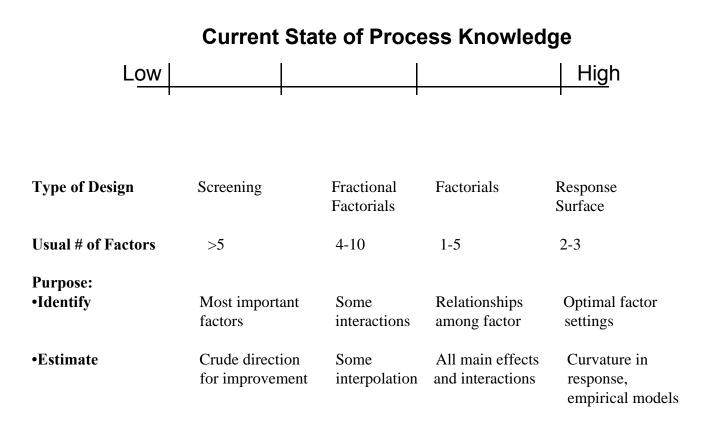
Applies DOE in manufacturing when it is not possible to shut down for experimental runs.

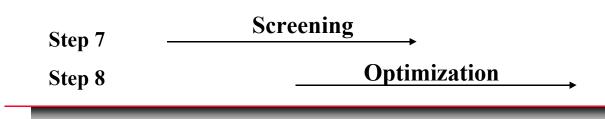
Finds the optimum proportion of elements in a mixture. Example: from fruit juice to rocket fuel.

Strategy for Choosing the Appropriate Design

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The Knowledge Line





Screen Potential Causes and Discover Variable Relationships

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Demonstration II



Demonstration H

- Using what you now know about factorial experiments, repeat the Cellulose Helicopter project to maximize flight time.
- Create prediction models for both the mean and standard deviation of flight time.
- Estimate your best Z_{st} given a lower specification limit of _____ sec.

Factors That May Affect Flight Time of CHI Helicopters

The Cellulose Helicopter Association has authorized for flight testing certain modifications to the standard design. Allowable ranges for the factors that may vary are shown below:

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Factor	Suggested Levels	Allowable
	Standard	Changes
Paper Type	Recycled (yellow)	Copier (white)
Paper Clip	No	Yes
Taped Body	No	3 inches of adhesive tape
Taped Wing Joint	No	Yes
Body Width	1.42"	2.00"
Body Length	3.00"	4.75"
Wing Length	3.00"	4.75"
	here ar	ape goes ad wraps back of



Phase II: Project Description

Project Mission:

- Find the combination of factors that most consistently maximizes the flight time of a foot drop
- Project Constraints:
 - Each prototype costs: \$100,000 to build
 - Additionally it costs: \$10,000 to conduct a single flight time test
 - You must do both a screening design (Part A) and a main test (Part B)
 - You must run a final test (Part C) to verify the improvements you have identified
 - Your materials and test budget for this phase is limited to \$5,000,000
 - Your team must issue a report



Part A: Screening Design

- A 7-factor screening design must be run to verify any and all assumptions the team has made as a result of Phase I.
- Choose your <u>screening</u> design, set it up in Minitab and collect your data.
- Analyze your data:
 - Box Plots
 - Run Charts
 - Pareto of Effects
 - Factorial Plots (main effects)
- Determine the factors you want to carry over to Part B of your experiment and give statistical results to support your decision.

Part B: Main Test

- Choose your <u>main experiment</u> design. It must include at least two replicates. Set it up in Minitab and collect your data.
- Analyze your data:
 - Box Plots
 - Run Charts
 - Residuals Plots
 - Pareto of Effects
 - Factorial Plots (main effects and interactions)
- Develop a prediction equation for flight time of your recommended model.
- Develop a prediction equation for variation.
- Calculate the detectable effect size for your experimental design given your s_p.
- Define the features of your recommended model and give statistical results to support your recommendation.



Part C: Verification Test

- Determine how many flights you want or can afford to make to verify the design improvements you have identified through your experiment.
- Collect your data.
- Analyze your data for randomness and normality.
- Determine your new flight time process capability against a flight time lower specification of _____ seconds.
- Demonstrate whether or not you have achieved a statistically significant difference in average flight time from your baseline model.
- Summarize your costs against the budget.

Tips & Rules

Good designs include REPLICATION, RANDOMIZATION, and verification.

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- Design Selection: factors, resolution (possibility of interactions), runs (DES, budget).
- In Minitab: name factors to make table readable.
- Set up production line to share the manufacturing work.
- Label helicopters clearly.
- Establish a good measuring process.
- Make notes on unusual flight observations, i.e. stability.
- Less experimental variation means more conclusive results.
- Hints: consistent wing angle, fold stability, body folding, release method, storage of helicopters, avoid air currents.

Typical Time Requirements

Part A:

½ hr: screening design selection and setup in Minitab

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- 1/2 hr: production and flight tests
- 1 hr: analysis of screening design/selection of second design
- Part B:
- ½ hr: experimental design selection and setup in Minitab
- **1** $\frac{1}{4}$ hr: production and flight tests
- 1 hr: analysis of second design

Part C:

- 1/4 hr: verification tests
- 1 hr: preparation of report

Roles and Responsibilities

Role	Responsibility	Who
Lead Engineer	Leads the team in deciding which prototypes to build. Has final say on which prototypes are built and tested.	
Test Engineer	Leads the team in conducting the flight tests of all prototypes. Has final say on how tests are conducted.	
Assembly Engineer	Leads the team in building the prototypes. Has final say on all building issues.	
Finance Manager	Leads the team in tracking expenses. Has responsibility for keeping the team on budget.	
Recorder	Leads the team in recording	

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Project Report

- Prepare a Phase II report on your recommendations for increasing flight time. Include:
 - Recommendations for an improved helicopter design

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- Predicted flight time at improved setting
- How much money did you use?
- What experimental strategy did you use to arrive at the above?
- How did you analyze your data?
- Your two prediction models
- Your Z_{st}
- Your DES

(H) **Exercise**

What differences did you notice between Demo I and Demo II?

One-Factor-At-A-Time and Stick-With-A-Winner approaches are limited with regard to the amount of information they provide about a process.

- Full Factorial design is an approach that tests every possible combination of the factors.
- Full Factorial designs have a pattern that is easy to lay out and will result in 2^k different experimental conditions for an experiment with k factors at two levels.
- A well-designed experiment will include replication, as opposed to repetition.
- Randomizing the order in which the experiment is conducted can reduce the bias that a lurking variable might introduce.

Before analyzing the data from a designed experiment, diagnostic steps should be undertaken with both the raw data and residuals.

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- Any outliers that are identified should be investigated. Do not throw away the outliers unless there exists very extreme circumstances to which you can associate the point.
- Focus on the outliers to reduce the variation within your process.
- Replicated experimental designs will allow the analysis of residuals and the calculation of an estimate of experimental variability, the pooled standard deviation.



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Take Aways—Steps 7 and 8

- There is an interaction when the effect that one factor has on the response of interest depends on the level of another factor.
- After calculating the effects of the factors and their interactions, a prediction equation for the mean and standard deviation of the response may be developed using the terms that are statistically significant.

 $- Y = f(X_1, X_2, \frac{1}{4}, X_n)$

The prediction equation may be used to determine the desired settings of the factors to achieve the desired response.

For a full factorial design, the number of experimental runs grows exponentially with the number of factors, which frequently makes it too costly and time consuming to perform an experiment.

- Fractional designs may allow investigation with a smaller number of runs.
- Much of the information obtained in a full factorial can be obtained using only a fraction of the full factorial.
- There are methods for creating fractional factorial designs.
 - half fraction
 - quarter fraction
 - etc.



Fractional designs result in fewer runs but introduce confounding, which makes the interpretation of results from an experiment more difficult.

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- Screening designs are useful as a first iteration in a series of experiments.
 - only provide information about main factors
 - can be used to take a large list of factors and reduce it to a smaller number of factors to be investigated in another experiment
 - main effects are confounded with two-factor interactions

Resolution describes the degree of confounding present in a fractional factorial design.

Detectable Effect Size describes the smallest effect an experiment will consistently detect.

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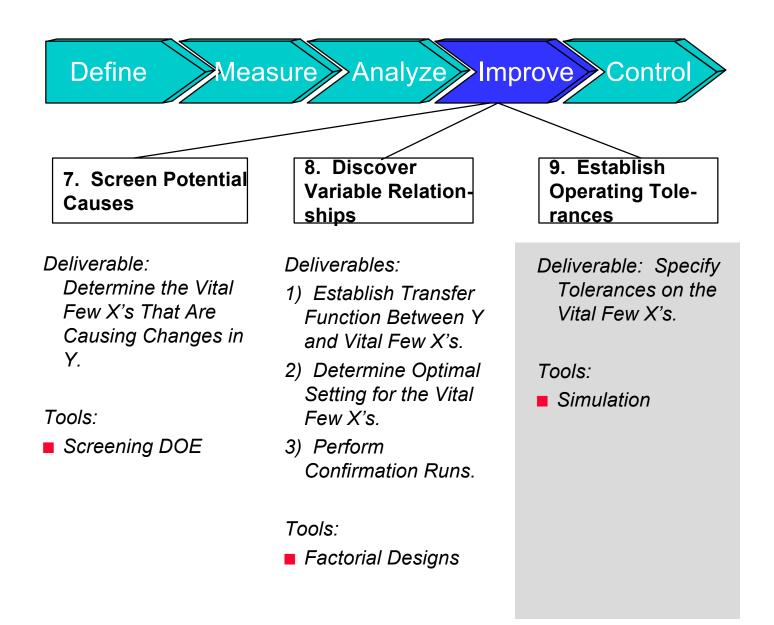
- When deciding on the number of runs, consider the detectable effect size
- Several things are important when selecting an experimental design:
 - Number of factors to be studied
 - Potential for interactions
 - Budget/Time constraints
 - Need for replication
- Selecting the proper design often involves a trade-off among number of factors, resolution, and number of runs.

- Designed experiments are one of many tools that may be used when improving a process.
- Our level of knowledge concerning the process/product/equipment is a key determinant in the selection of a design strategy.
- When experimenting, what is learned from the initial experiment will shape the next experiment. This is the sequential nature of experimentation.
- Stable processes and well defined, stable measurement systems help assure successful experimentation.

The 25% rule is a helpful guideline when performing a series of experiments. The 25% rule states that 25% of a budget should be reserved for an initial screening study, or other first phase experiments.

- Center points may be used to estimate experimental variability in lieu of replication.
- Center points may also be used to check for curvature in the response of interest.
- Selection of factor levels and identification of response variables require subject matter knowledge and experience.
- Well designed experiments include both replication and randomization.
- Conclusions should be verified with additional experimentation.

Improve Phase



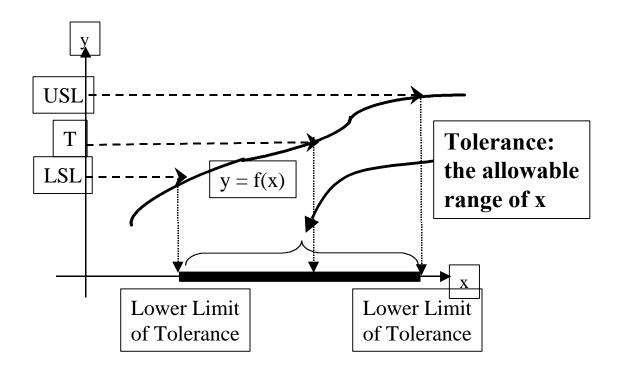


Step 8 provided the experimental techniques to establish the relationship between the measurable y characteristics and the controlling x factors. In step 9, those relationships, so-called transfer functions, will be used to define the key operating parameters and tolerance to achieve the desired performance of the CTQ's. The concept is very straightforward, one should be able to set the tolerance of x factors if the x-y relationship and the specifications of y are given. A quick example is following.

Principle of Tolerancing

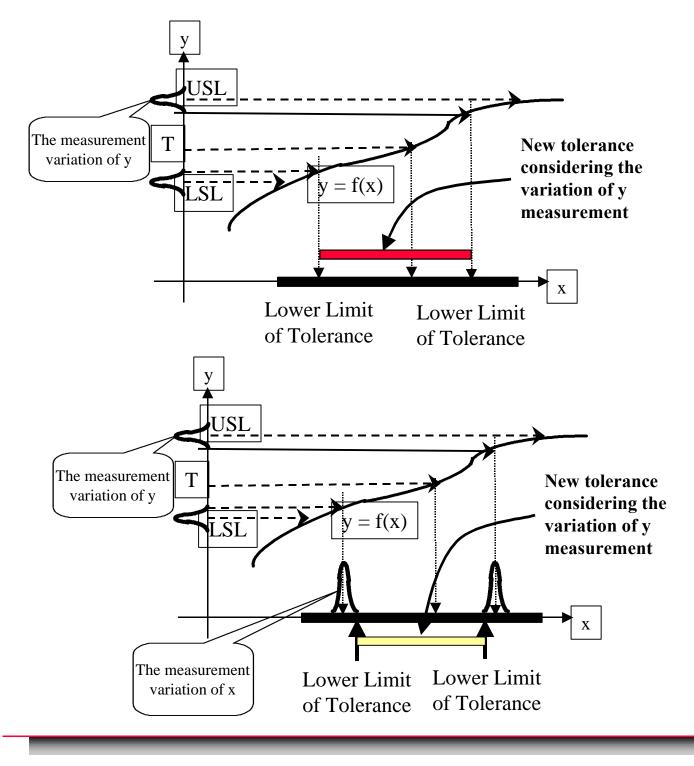
Tolerance: the allowable range of variation of x while still meeting the requirements of x.

- Establish tolerance of x based on the requirements of y, or often the specification limits via the Transfer function.
- The tolerance should allow the project to reach the project objectives established in step 5
- When more than one CTQ are involved, be aware of the trade offs among CTQs.
- Be aware the variations due to the measurement of x's and y's.



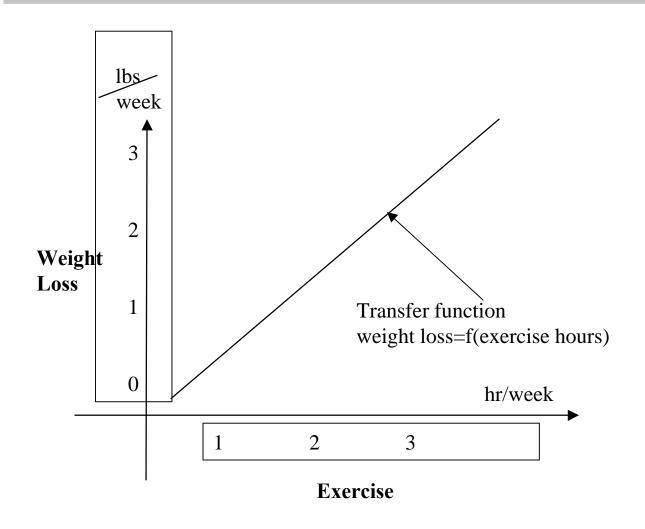
Consideration of Measurement Variations

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Example: Weight loss wellness program

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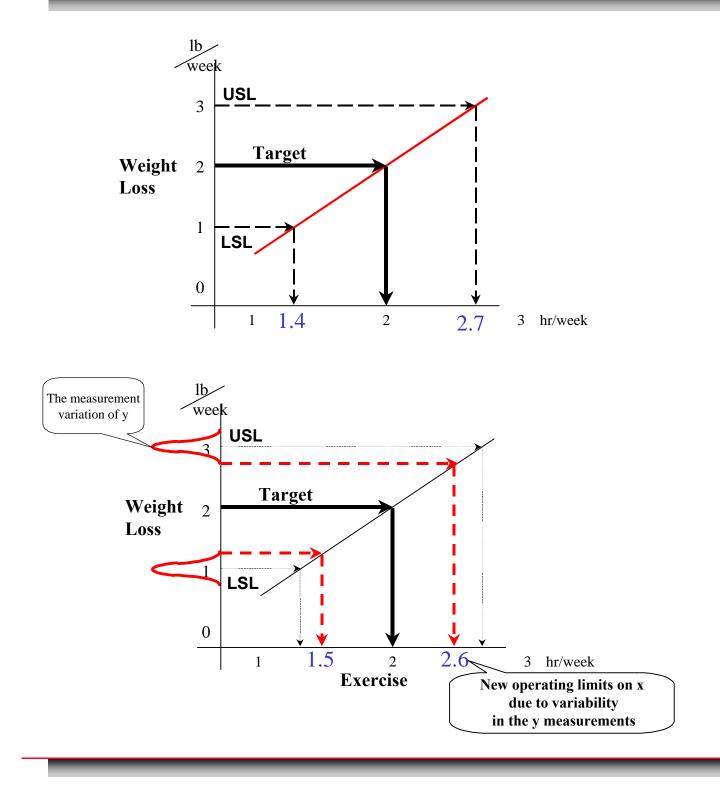


CTQ requirements:

- Target to lose 2 lb/week
- At least need to lose 1 lb/wk
- No more than 3 lb/wk due to health concerns

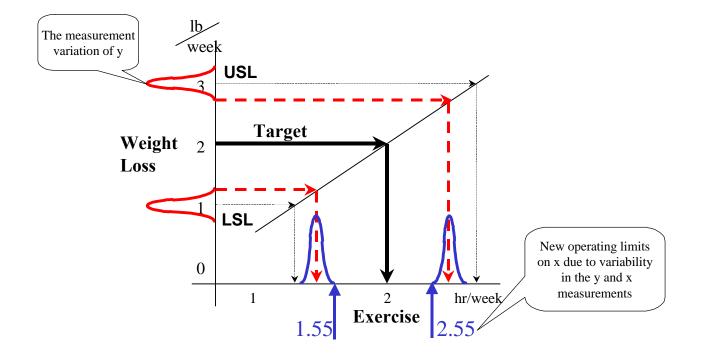
Example: Weight loss wellness program

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Example: Weight loss wellness program

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Summary

- Set the process tolerances based on product specifications (Exercise time needed to achieve desired weight loss goal.).

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- Adjusted our process tolerances to account for product measurement variation (our scales vary by 1/4 lb).

- The tolerance principle is relatively simple and the applications is relatively straightforward when

(1) the measurement variation of y and x are sufficiently small to be ignored.

(2) only one x factor involved. However, when measurement variations of y and x needs to be considered and multiple x factors are involved, the math techniques could be more complicated. Courses on DFSS Statistical Design Method or DFSS Statistical Tolerance are offered in various GE businesses. Simulation Overview

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Simulation can be thought of as the use of a model of a system for the purpose of evaluating the system's behavior under various conditions

- Provides general insight into the nature and performance of a business process
- "Easy" method of understanding performance of many interacting variables
- Helps identify specific problem(s) within a process
- Supports development/justification of process designs or changes (costs, quality, risk)

An Introduction to Simulation

Basics of simulation

- How simulation fits into GE's six sigma efforts
- How to manage a simulation project

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Where Is It Used?

Examples

Wind tunnel testing of aircraft model

- Weather
- Traffic patterns
- Predicting time needed to travel from Cincinnati to Heathrow airports from the map
- Solving the differential equation for circuit current, voltage drops
- But you may be concerned with Process simulation: mimicking the arrival of calls, customers, etc., by using processing times and costs to predict overall system cycle times, costs, bottlenecks and productivity

Why Might You Use Simulation?

Simulations permit inferences to be drawn about systems

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- Without building the system
- Without disturbing the system
- Without destroying (or causing breakdown of) the system

Advantages

- Relatively cheap laboratory for evaluating decisions before implementation
- Provides usable solutions where other methods fail
- *Computer simulation:*
 - Visually documents process behavior
 - Allows user to see what otherwise might be missed

Disadvantages

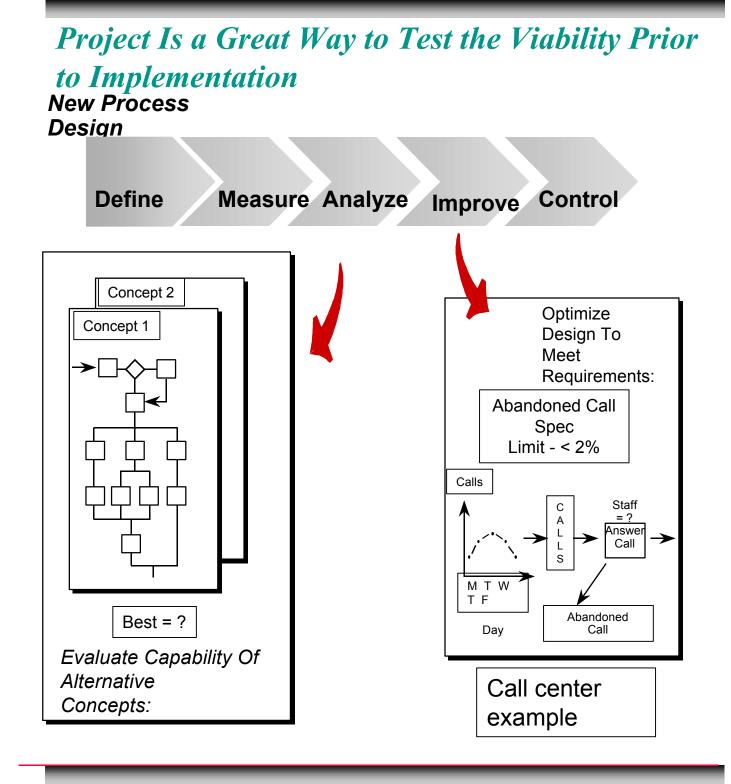
Requires large amounts of accurate data to provide a reliable model.

Certain Conditions Make Simulation Appropriate

- No formula or "good" analytical solution exists for the problem
 - *for example, complex inventory and scheduling problems.*
- The assumptions made in existing analytical models are too restrictive, or otherwise inappropriate for the problem
- *Examples*
 - *call center*
 - determining inventory for service levels
 - order fulfillment process
 - payment process
 - job shop model

Modeling a Proposed Process From a DMAIC

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When to Use Crystal Ball?

Advantages

- Easy to use
- Wide variety of distributions
- Graphical display

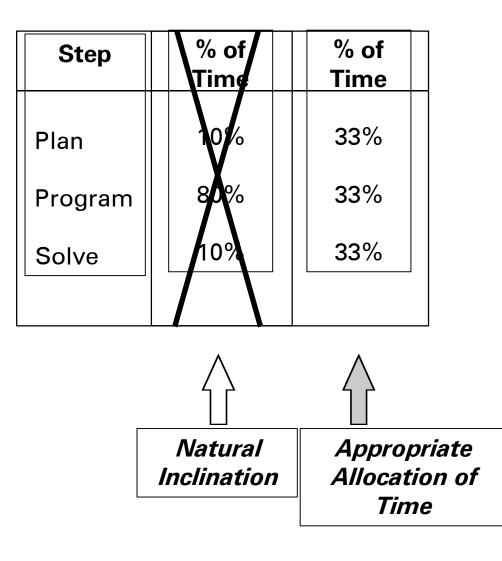
Disadvantages

— Cumbersome to model complex, multi-step processes in Excel - you have to define the equations before you can model the process

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- Does not provide a visual flow of the process
- Use CB if you can define the equations in a "simple" spreadsheet, or if you feel comfortable doing some visual basic programming

There Are Three General Steps to Simulation



There Is a Basic Methodology for the Modeling and Simulation Process

- Specify Understand the problem to be studied and objective of doing simulation. Develop a project plan and get customer sign-off
- Develop Describe model based on expert interviews and observation of process
- Quantify Collect data needed to define process properties
- Implement Prepare software model
- Verify Determine that computer model executes properly
- Validate Compare model output with real process (if it exists)
- Plan Establish the experimental options to be simulated
- Conduct Execute options and collect performance measures
- Analyze Analyze simulation results
- Recommend Make recommendations

A Few of the Previous Ten Steps Require Particular Emphasis

- DO NOT go directly to preparing the software model - spend plenty of time planning
- Start with a team that has at least the following expertise:
 - Intimate knowledge of the process to be modeled and the associated logic
 - Intimate knowledge of what data is available
 - Knowledge of probability and statistics
- Make sure a process owner has bought in to the simulation effort
- Don't try to model every step of the process, rather only those steps that have a significant impact on the outcome.
 - A model of the entire business would be great, but very difficult to create. Make sure the interdependencies you are modeling are highly relevant, and could not just be "black boxed" instead.

More on the Details

- Stay within project boundaries
- Clearly define the project
 - What questions do you want the model to answer? Answer must be very precise.
 - What process variables do you want to be able to control? Again, answer must be very specific.

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- Given the questions and parameters from above, what data will you need?
 - Ensure the team understands what data is available, and in what form (electronic, manual, archived, etc.)
 - Be very precise in your data requests create very detailed data templates so the data gatherers can just fill-in the blanks

Crystal Ball

Simulation

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Establish Operating Tolerances

Crystal Ball Overview

- Crystal Ball is an Excel Add-On
- Given that Y is a function of some Xs, distributions are assigned to the Xs, then random samples of the Xs are drawn to determine the distribution of the Y

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- Input Xs can be assigned to a number of established distributions (Normal, Poisson, Uniform), or a user defined distribution
- Y must be a result of some equation or routine run in Excel. This relation can be anything that Excel can calculate and is often referred to as the 'transfer function'
- Repeated sampling of the Xs and calculation of Y is called a 'Monte Carlo' simulation

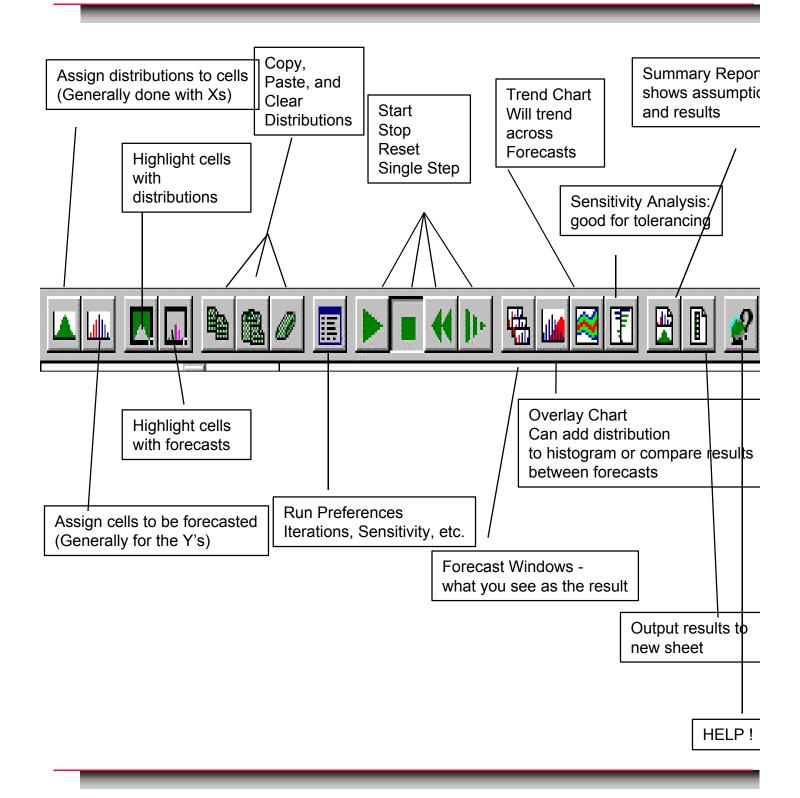
WARNINGS !!!

Crystal Ball can only make predictions given your assumptions

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- poor assumptions yield poor results !
- Crystal Ball should be used for rough order predictions
 - 'extreme value' estimates should not be relied on
- Rerun Crystal Ball simulations to see if the result is robust
 - Certain models may be very sensitive to initial values used in the simulator
- Crystal Ball is only used for processes that can be modeled with a function in Excel
 - If the process is more complicated, use another modeling package (e.g.. Process Model)
- Crystal Ball does not track individual objects, people, widgets, etc.. through time or space

Crystal Ball Menu



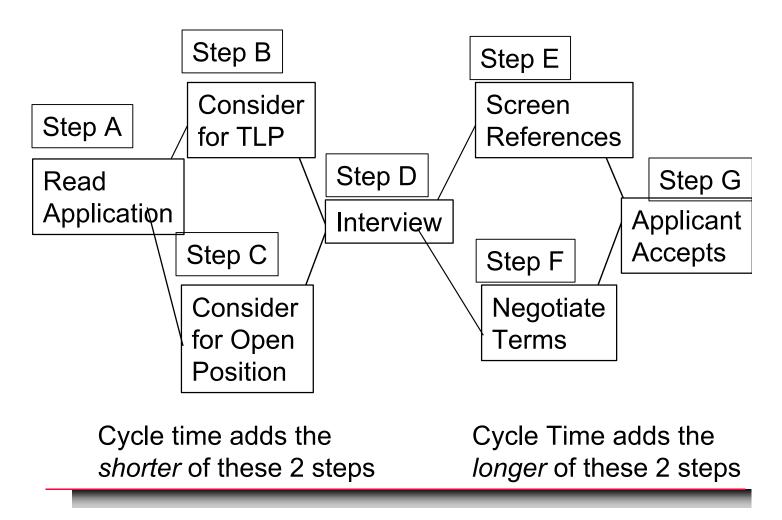
(¥E)

Crystal Ball Example - 'Hiring2.xls'

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A simplified hiring process is shown below

We wish to analyze the overall cycle time for this process



Establish Operating Tolerances

Crystal Ball Example - 'Hiring2.xls'

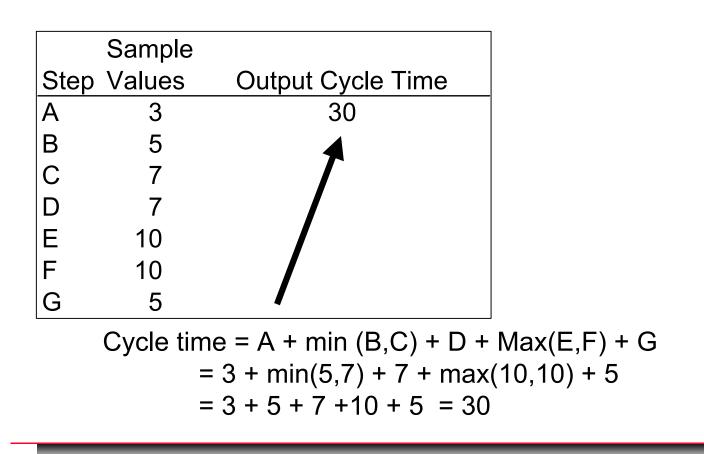
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- Each step in the process has a certain cycle time, as well as some variation (summarized in the Excel file)
- We want to understand the distribution of our total cycle time, and which steps in the process most affect the variation in our response
- The following pages step through how to use Crystal Ball to find out

Step 1 - Setting up the Spreadsheet

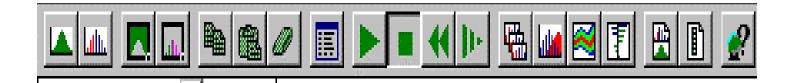
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- It is often useful to set up a sheet where output Y can be calculated from a set of sample values
- These samples values can then be assigned distributions based on fixed cells in other parts of the spreadsheet



Step 2 - Assigning the distribution to step A

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- Click on an input X, then click the top left button on the toolbar
- See Crystal Ball menus on the right
- Mean and standard deviation can be entered directly or via a cell address

Step 2 - continued

Assigning parameters to cell values makes it easier to make changes later

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- Different distributions require different inputs
 - Normal requires mean and standard deviation
 - Uniform requires minimum and maximum
 - Triangular requires minimum, peak, and maximum
- A distribution can be truncated by setting a lower and/or an upper limit (change this in the box where it shows 'infinity')
- Each Input step is assigned a distribution as shown in the spreadsheet

Exercise

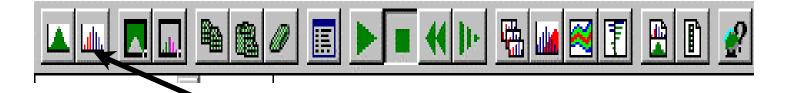
Check steps B to E, and assign the correct values to steps F and G

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- The distributions are shown in the Excel spreadsheet
- Use the 'Sample Values' cells as the Xs
 - refer the inputs directly to the cells in the 'process map'

Step	Cell Ref.
A	D19 D20
В	G18 G19
С	G22 G23
D	K19 K20
E	N18 N19
F	N22 N23 N24
G	R19 R20

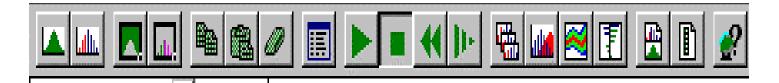
Step 3 - Assign the Y to be Forecast



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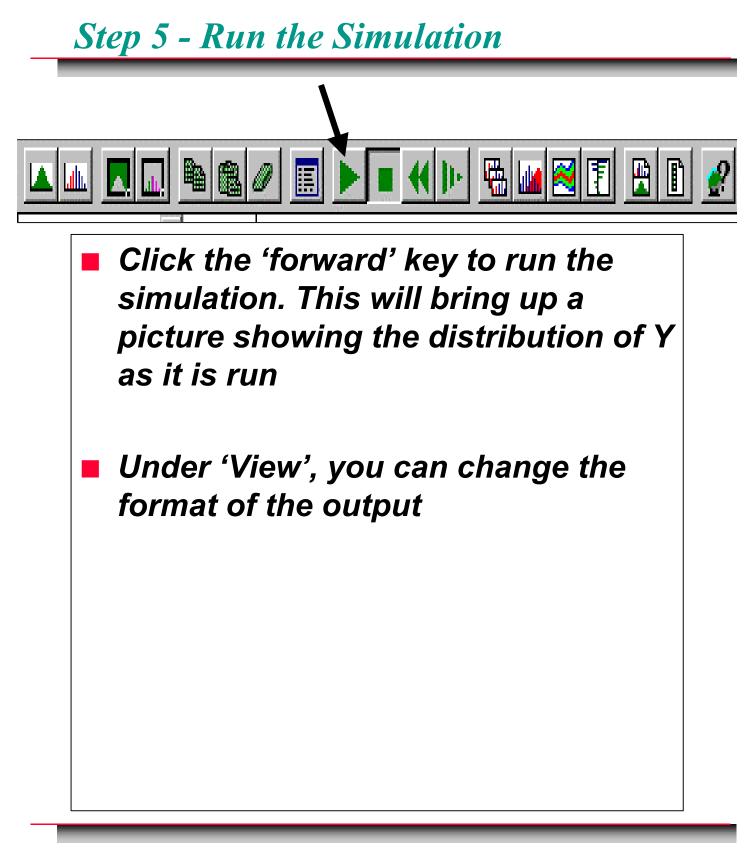
- Click on the output Y, then the second button on the toolbar
- This tells Excel to run the simulation with that cell as the output
- Several Ys can be set up to be forecast simultaneously
- The options are usually OK as is

Step 4 - Assigning Run Preferences



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Run Preferences establishes how long the simulations runs, etc.

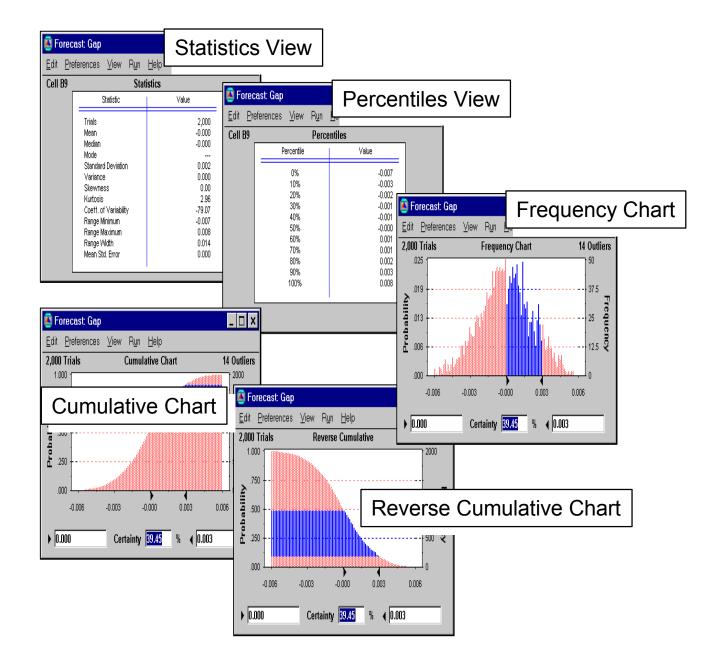


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The Forecast Window (cont.)

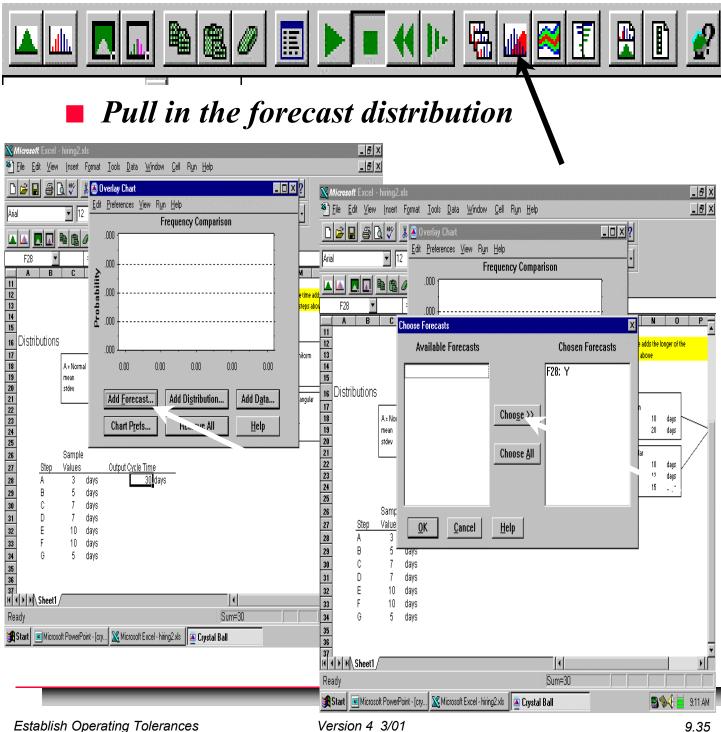
Different views of the forecast window: Views menu

(¥E)



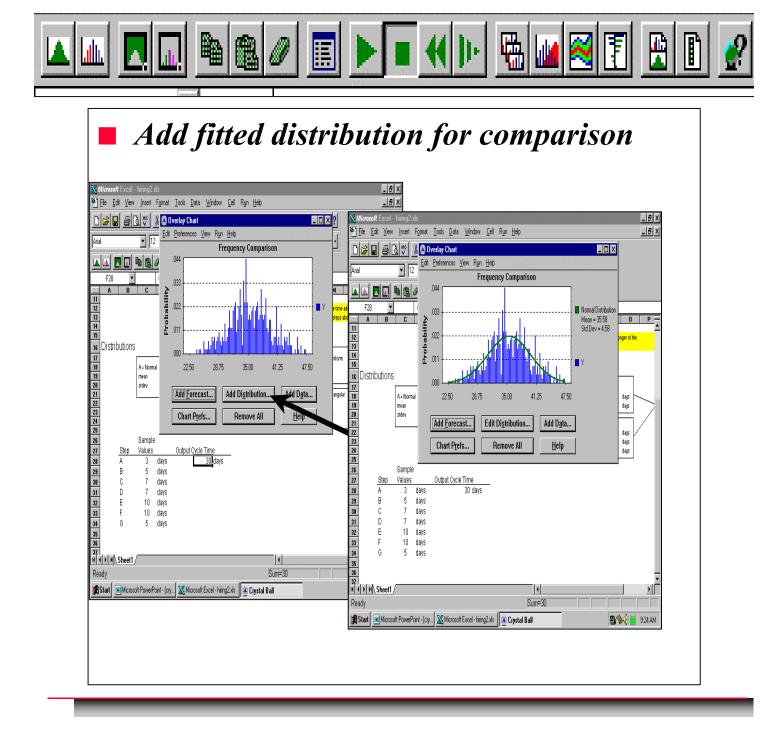
Step 6 - Create Overlay Chart

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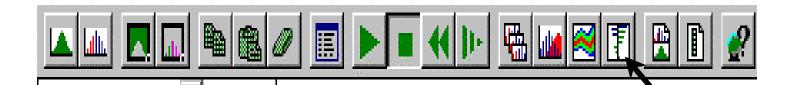


Step 6 - Create Overlay Chart - continued

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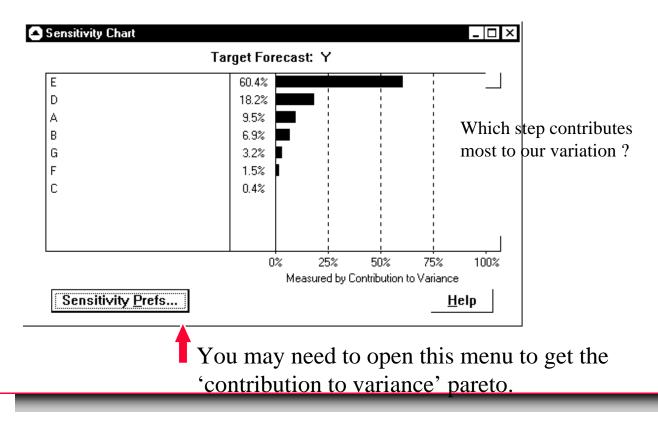


Step 7 - Sensitivity Analysis

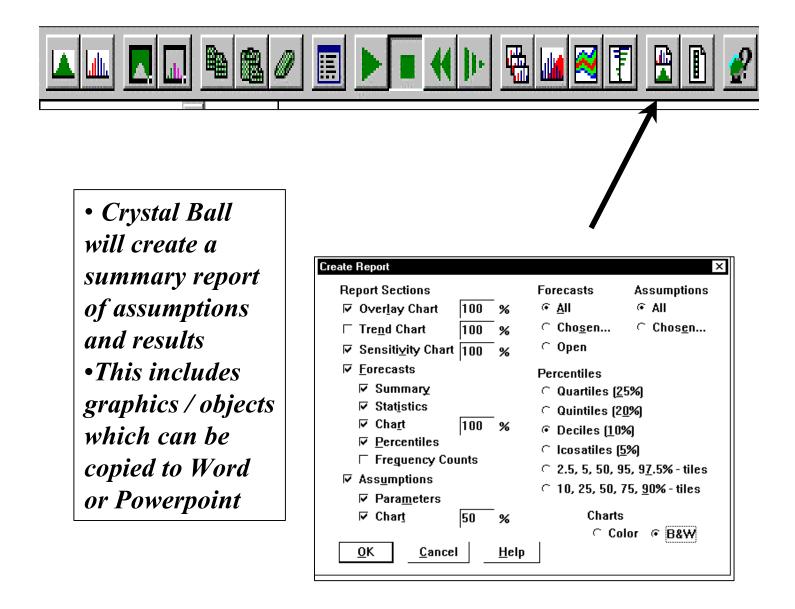


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A sensitivity analysis tells us which X is most influencing the variation in our Y
 This allows us to focus our efforts to reduce variation



Step 8 - Writing Reports



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Tolerancing helps to define the allowable range of variation of x while still meeting the requirements of x.

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- Simulation can be a way to set tolerances on your x's.
- *Crystal Ball simulates the distribution of an output Y*
 - Given Y = f(X) also known as a transfer function
 - Given the distributions on the X's
- This simulation randomly samples the X's and calculates the Y.
 - This is called a Monte-Carlo Simulation
- Crystal Ball is good for processes with direct transfer functions
 - Equations which can be coded in Excel
- More complicated processes require a more detailed approach
 - Attainable in "Process Model" software

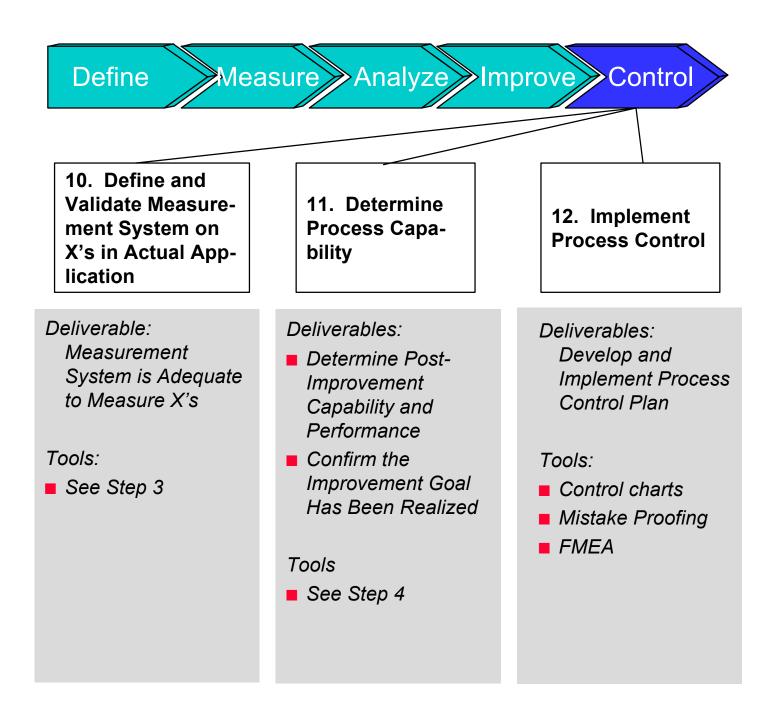
Introduction to Control

12 Step Six Sigma Process

Step Define	Description	Focus	Tools	Deliverables	
A B C	Identify Project CTQs Develop Team Charter Define Process Map		VOC Tools, VOC Data	Project CTQs (1) Approved Charter (2) High Level Process Map (3)	
Measur 1	e Select CTQ	Y	Fishbone, FMEA, Pareto	Project Y (4)	
·	Characteristic	•	Customer, QFD		
2	Define Performance Standards	Υ, Χ	Customer, Blueprints	Performance Standard for Project Y (5)	
3	Establish Data Collection Plan, Validate Measurement System*, & Collect Data	Υ, Χ	Gage Study	Data Collection Plan & MSA (6), Data for Project Y (7)	
Analyze					
4	Establish Process Capability	Y	Capability Indices	Process Capability for Project Y (8)	
5	Define Performance Objective	Y	Team, Benchmarking	Improvement Goal for Project Y (9)	
6	Identify Variation Sources	Х	Hypothesis Tests	Prioritized List of all Xs (10)	
Improve					
7	Screen Potential Causes	Х	DOE-Fractional, Process Map, Fishbone, FMEA	List of Vital Few Xs (11)	
8	Discover Variable Relationships & Propose Solution	Х	DOE-Full, Prediction Eqns., DFSS, Statistical Tolerancing	Proposed Solution (13)	
9	Establish Operating Tolerances & Pilot Solutio	Y, X n	, i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i	Piloted Solution (14)	
Control					
10	Validate Measurement* System	Υ, Χ	Gage Study	MSA*	
11	Determine Process Capability	Υ, Χ	Capability Indices	Process Capability Y, X (15)	
12 * <u>You may w</u>	Implement Process Control System & Project Closure vant to validate the Measurement System	X throughout th	Risk Analysis, Mistake Proof, SPC QPT e DMAIC steps.	Sustained Solution (15), Documentation (16), Leveraged Solution (17), Financial Audit (12)	

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Control Phase



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In the physical world, the law of Entropy explains the gradual loss of order in a system. The same law applies to business processes.

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Unless we add "energy" (in the form of documentation and ongoing process controls), processes will tend to degrade over time, losing the gains achieved by design and improvement activities.

The quality plan is the structure through which we add this "energy" to business processes.



Control: Main Objectives

To make sure that our process stays in control after the solution has been implemented.

To quickly detect the out of control state and determine the associated special causes so that actions can be taken to correct the problem before nonconformances are produced.

Maintaining Control

- Keep Xs within tolerance by using appropriate controls (Risk Management, Mistake Proofing, etc.)
- Apply control charts to Xs to monitor and control variation.
- Understand implications on existing quality plans due to modification of current control systems.
- Establish transition plan for maintaining control of improved process.

Detecting Variation

- Common Cause Variation
 - natural variability
 - random
 - inherent in the process
- Special Cause Variation
 - may be caused by operator errors, adjusted machines, or defective raw materials

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- generally large when compared to the common cause variation
- considered an unacceptable level of process performance
- Special causes tend to cause a process to shift out of control where the process output does not meet the desired specifications.



What is a Process Control System?

A process control system

- strategy for maintaining the improved process performance over time
- identifies the specific actions and tools required for sustaining the process improvements or gains

A control system may incorporate

- Risk Management
- Mistake-proofing devices
- Statistical process control (SPC)
- Data collection plans
- Ongoing measurements
- Audit plans
- Response plans*
- Product drawings
- Process documentation
- Process ownership

Why is a Process Control System Important?

- Defines the actions, resources, and responsibilities needed to make sure the problem remains corrected and the benefits from the solution continue to be realized.
- Provides the methods and tools needed to maintain the process improvement, independent of the current team.
- Ensures that the improvements made have been **documented** (often necessary to meet regulatory requirements).
- Facilitates the solution's full-scale implementation by promoting a common understanding of the process and planned improvements.



Effective Process Control System

- The Process Control System provides the on-going process control and is based on:
 - the importance of the requirement
 - the production/process method
 - the capability of the process



Key Steps in Developing a Process Control System

Complete an implementation plan.

- Plan and implement the solution and develop a method to control each vital X or key sources of variation
- Define all possible areas that may require action in order to control the process X and then determine the appropriate course of action to take
- Develop a data collection plan to confirm that your solution meets your improvement goals.
 - Establish ongoing measurements needed for the project Y and create a response
 plan to follow in case process performance falls below established standards

Key Steps in Developing a Process Control System

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Communicate your strategy.

 Document the process and control plan to ensure process standardization and the continuation of the solution's benefits

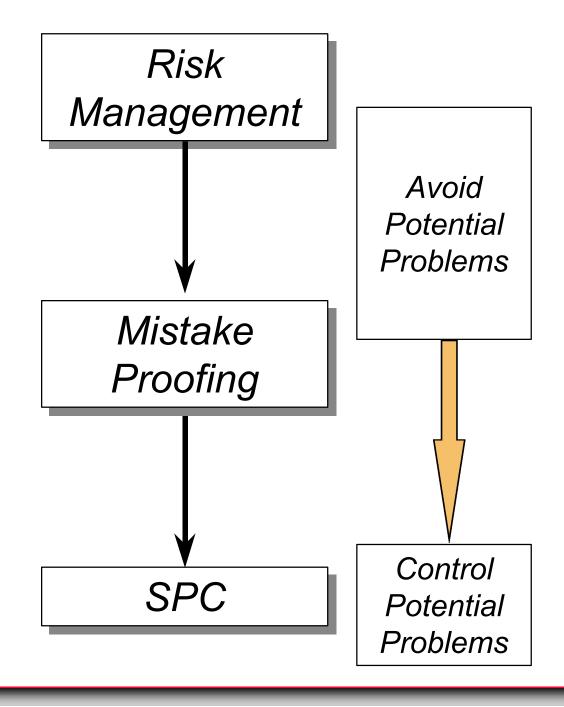
Train Personnel.

Run the new process and collect the data to confirm your solution.



Control Mechanisms

Three Main Control Mechanisms



Risk Management

- Determine the probability and impact of each risk presented by the planned process change.
- Link the probability and impact of occurrence to the risk, then determine the abatement action.
- Assign ownership and determine timing for each abatement action.

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Mistake Proofing

- Helps to sustain a solution by eliminating the possibility that an X can be set outside the desired level or configuration...or
- Warns the process operator before the X goes outside limits so preventative action can be taken.
- Mistake proofing can be used alone or with either risk management or statistical process control to sustain a solution.



Statistical Process Control

- Control charts can be used to monitor Xs and quickly detect a change in the process due to special cause variation.
- Very helpful when your Xs cannot be mistake proofed or easily controlled within the required tolerance range.



Controls - Group Discussion

What works & what does not work?

- Mistake-Proofing Methods
- Measurement Methods
- Behavioral Methods

Class Exercise:

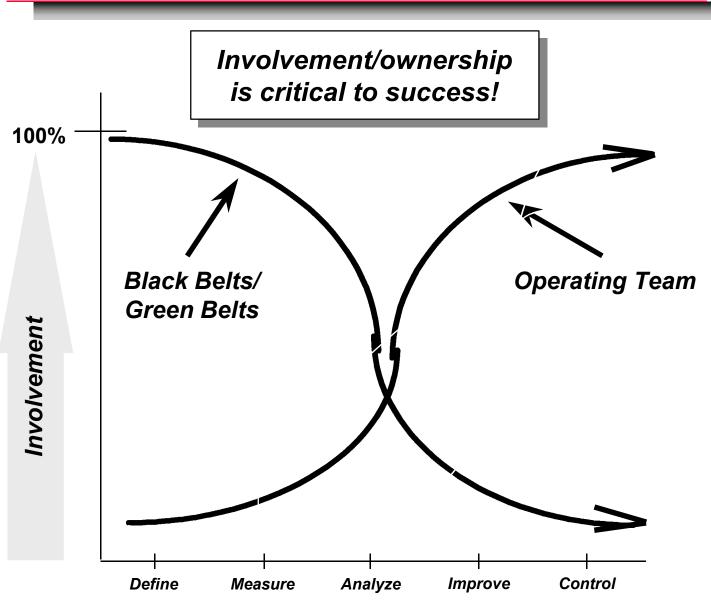
Think of process improvement projects you have been involved with (not necessarily Six Sigma). What controls did you put in place? Which controls worked and which did not?



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- Complete an implementation plan.
- Develop a data collection plan to confirm that your solution meets your improvement goals.
- Communicate your strategy.
- Train Personnel.
- Run the new process and collect the data to confirm your solution.



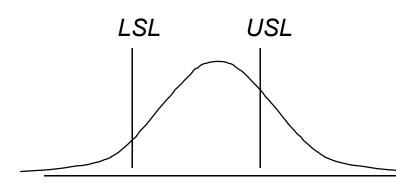


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Plant managers, engineering, and leaders are functional champions

Confirm the Solution

- Calculate new process capability after we implement the improvement.
- Determine if the new process capability (process sigma, or Z short term) meets your improvement goal.
 - See if you achieved the desired mean shift, variance reduction, or DPMO reduction
 - Use hypothesis testing as demonstrated in the approach introduced in the Analyze phase when you verified your list of Xs with data



Process Before Improvement

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Process After Improvement Assess the Effectiveness of Solution

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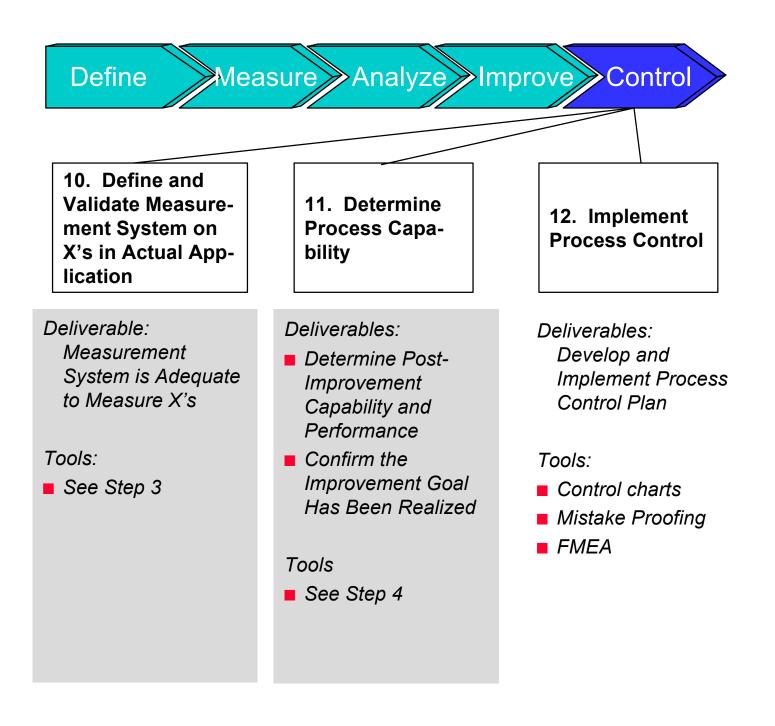
- Was the process improvement successful in satisfying the needs of the customer?
- Did the solution result in any additional or unexpected benefits?
- Can the solution be leveraged to other projects?
- Are there other Green Belt projects that can be started?

Take Aways—Introduction to Control

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- The objective of control is to see that an intended change or solution remains in place.
- There are various mechanisms that can be used to control a process:
 - Risk Management
 - Mistake Proofing
 - Statistical Process Control (SPC)
 - Control Plans

Control Phase



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Define and Validate the Measurement System on X's in the actual application

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Project Deliverable: Measurement System is adequate to Measure X's



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Determine Process Capability

Project Deliverable: Determine Post-Improvement Capability and Performance (Z_{st} and Z_{lt})

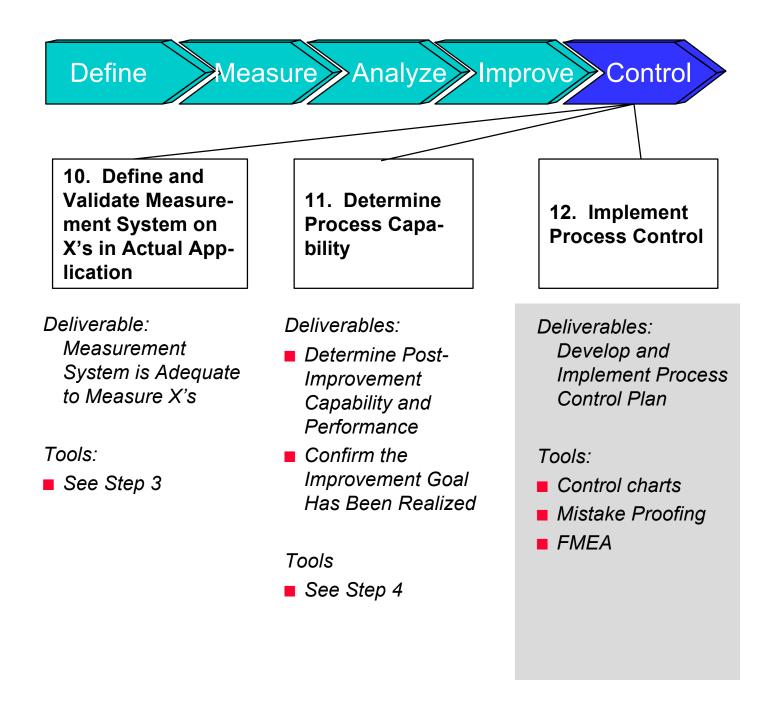
• Calculate post improvement capability of performance based on the technique described in Step 4.

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- Confirm improvement goal established in Step 5 has been realized on the y.
- If not, go back to Step 6 to look for additional sources of variation.









Quality Planning



The Quality Plan in the Project Lifecycle

Define Measure Analyze Improve	 Focus on the Right CTQ Quantify the Problem Determine the Drivers Y = f(X) Identify Needed Change Implement the Change
Control Close	 Validate Measurement System Determine Process Capability
	 Develop/Modify Quality Plan Process Documentation Process Controls
	 Implement Process Controls Audit Plan Established Transition to Operating Owners



What is a Quality Plan?

- A quality plan is a documented plan whose purpose is to ensure each product characteristic or process requirement stays in conformance.
- A quality plan may include:
 - Process documentation and standards:
 - > Procedures to follow
 - > Operating tolerances or other specifications
 - Process controls:
 - > Items to be monitored and audited
 - > Response planning for process breakdowns
- ISO 9000 has strict requirements for creating and maintaining quality plans.
- For non-manufacturing functions, other process standards (e.g. Tollgates or local procedures) may provide better structure for creating or maintaining a quality plan.

Quality Plan - Documentation

Describes the flow of the process — process flowcharts	
 deployment flowcharts: a chart to show who is responsible for a particular process step 	
Describes standard operating procedures — be specific: tell precisely what actions to take	
and when and where to take them — keep descriptions at a level so that the job can	
be performed well by a person who is not fully trained	
 describe how to prevent product or process variationinclude cause and effect relationships 	
 provide operating tolerances and other specifications 	
provide clear and reasonable instructions	

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— provide clear and reasonable instructions

Helpful hints

- test the procedures
- check that all steps are included
- stress the importance of procedures
- provide a method for updating

Quality Plan - Process Control Plan

- The Process Control Plan provides the on-going control and is based on:
 - the importance of the requirement
 - the production/process method
 - the capability of the process
- Whenever possible use existing controlled systems to establish a control plan
 - quality systems (QS, Quality Operating Procedures, etc)
 - workstation instruction books
 - process specs



Quality Plan - Process Controls

The Key to Process Controls is ...

Monitoring (frequent intervals)

- Ongoing measurements of process variation and/or capability
- Responding to and taking action on nonrandom variation and/or poor performance
- Done by those closest to process

Maintaining Process Controls Requires ...

Auditing (infrequent intervals)

- Broad review of entire process to ensure that controls are in place and effective:
 - current documentation & standards
 - general compliance with procedures
 - valid measurements
 - proper monitoring and response
 - Done by those further from process



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Process Controls - Monitoring

KEY QUESTIONS:

- **1**. Why monitor?
- **2.** What should I monitor?
- 3. How much data do I collect?
- **4.** How can I detect changes in process variation or capability?
- **5.** What do I do if I detect a change?
- **6**. If the process is <u>in control</u> and <u>capable</u>, are my customers <u>still</u> satisfied?



Why monitor?

Because initial verification is not enough...

- First Article Inspection (FAI) examines all product or process characteristics on the <u>initial</u> run of a modified process. FAI requirements are found primarily in local manufacturing/engineering procedures.
- Information Management methods often call for initial verification to ensure quality of software after it is placed in production.
- These methods provide ONLY INITIAL ASSURANCE of process performance. Effective monitoring provides ON-GOING ASSURANCE.



What should I monitor?

Output measures

- customer satisfaction
- CTQs
- volumes (sales, throughput)
- Process measures
 - "upstream" monitoring points
 - supplier performance
 - volumes (throughput, inventory)
- Input measures
 - key process variables

Monitor what is most likely to help you detect and correct variation before it results in customer dissatisfaction.

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How much data do I collect?

- Determine the type and frequency of appraisal required for Control Plan Effectiveness.
- Factors to consider:
 - Impact of process Y on customer satisfaction
 - Impact of X on Y
 - Repeatability of measurement
 - Capability of process
 - Cost to obtain measurement



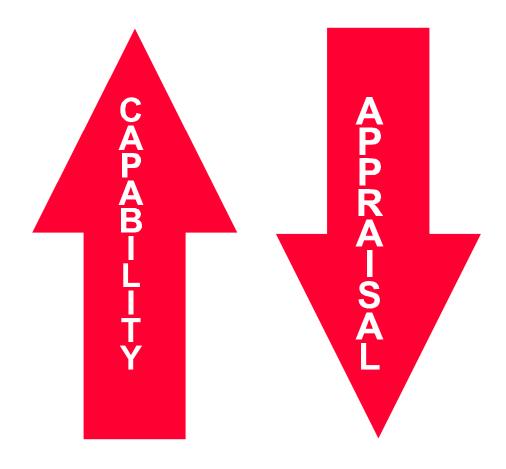
Monitoring - Sufficient Appraisal

Importance of Requirement	Production / Process Method	Process Capability	Method of Primary Control	Appraisal

Monitoring - Sufficient Appraisal (cont.)

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Better Capability = Less Appraisal



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How can I detect changes in my process?

- earliest possible detection
- *acceptable false alarm*
- monitor vital Xs with control chart
- look for out of control indications

What do I do if I detect a change in the process?

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- take action based upon control plan
- investigate for probable special cause
- response planning—a list of actions that provide direction when a process has achieved a certain state

If the process is in control and capable, are my customers <u>still</u> satisfied?

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- customer surveys
- meeting specification limits



Process Controls - Audit Requirement

- Purpose is to validate that the controls are still in place and are effective.
- Audit failures of the controls can result in re-implementation or modification to the controls to regain confidence that the project gains will remain.
- If an audit failure shows not only a failure of the controls, but also the project itself, a re-evaluation of Project benefits should be done.
- Should be done by an independent party whenever possible.
- Required by QPT: Section "W" in Control/Closure screen.
- Subject to ISO auditing. (Red Team, etc.)



Types of Control Plans

- 1. Die Control Plan
- 2. Fixture Control Plan
- 3. Computer/Tape/Template/Tool Control
- 4. Variable Data Charting/SPC
- 5. Characteristic Verification Plan
- 6. Process Control Acceptance Plan
- 7. Assembly Stack-Up Plan
- 8. Machine/Measuring Center Acceptance Plan

Control Methods

Used to Assure Characteristic Accountability

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Die Control

A quality control technique in which the forming or cutting die which generates a requirement is qualified and controlled to assure that it is generating conforming products. The characteristic is checked on the first piece to assure proper set-up and on the last piece to assure that the die wear has not altered the dimensions. After first piece acceptance, all pieces run on that die set-up are accepted and periodic product audits are conducted for verification.

Fixture Control

A quality control technique in which the fixture used to generate a requirement is qualified and controlled to assure it is generating conforming product. The characteristic is checked on the first piece to verify that the fixture has been made correctly. After first piece acceptance, all pieces run during the cycle period of the fixture are accepted and additional assurance is provided as required.

Tape Control

A quality control technique which utilized an approval and controlled Tape Program to assure the process is generating conforming product. The axis of movement of the tool is programmed to ensure that blueprint requirements are being met. The characteristic is checked on the first piece. After first piece acceptance, all parts run on an approved tape are accepted and periodic additional assurance is provided as required.

Control Methods (cont.)

Tool Control

A quality control technique which utilizes qualified tooling to assure the process is generating conforming product. The characteristic is checked on the first and the last piece at a minimum following the installation of a new tool. After first piece acceptance, all pieces are accepted until the tool is replaced and periodic product audits are conducted for verification.

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Characteristic Verification Plan (CVP)

A quality control acceptance technique which utilizes the operator who generates a requirement to check and accept that requirement. The operator is trained and CVP certified, then audited quarterly to ensure that he/she maintains an acceptable level of performance. The operation sheet specifies the verification plan, which can vary from checking every part to checking randomly selected samples. Periodic product audits are typically conducted for verification.

Process Control

A quality control technique in which characteristics are controlled by the controlling process variables. Process capability studies are conducted to manipulate the process variables in order to minimize variation and produce a consistent part. Once the process variables have been stabilized, it is assured that parts will be within blueprint limits. Periodic product audits are conducted for verification.

Variable Data Charting (SPC)

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Statistical Process Control is a quality control technique in which process generated data is used to help make decisions about the capability of the process to generate conforming hardware. A control chart is utilized to assure that the process is statistically in control, exhibiting only random variation. A process capability study is conducted to assure that the six sigma spread of the process will comfortably fit within the specification limits. When these conditions have been met, a process monitoring plan is developed to assure that the process remains in control and capable. If the process goes out of control, showing evidence of non-random assignable cause variation, the control plan is discontinued, generally replaced by 100% inspection, until the assignable cause is determined and corrected. The need for additional assurance is generally determined by the margin between the tolerance spread and the engineering requirement.



Process Management Chart

A process management chart is a flowchart and matrix which helps you manage a process by summarizing:

Standardizing	what the steps in the process are			
and	who does these steps and when			
Documenting	where more detailed work instructions can be found			
Monitoring	where data is taken on the process and on the product			
	who takes the data			
	how (by what methods) measurements are taken and recorded			
	when (how often) data is collected			
Response	who takes action based on the data			
Planning	where to find troubleshooting procedures			
	what action to take in the case of process failures			

Risk Management Process Introduction

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Objectives:

Provide an understanding of how Risk Management can be applied.

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- Introduce how to do Risk Management by working through key steps.
 - identifying risks, rating risks, abating risks, and executing risk management plans
- Introduce the methods now used to rate risk & how to use some of the tools available.
- Introduce the structure for holding formal risk reviews.
 - initially held with trained facilitators
- Understand the criticality of tracking & executing risk abatement plans.

What is the Value of a Risk Management Process?

Systematically identifies risk elements that can interfere with process improvement or cause loss of control.

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- Prevents risk elements from occurring through risk abatement plans.
- Periodically reassess risk.
- Communication of risk to management.
 - Drives clear decisions on risks

Risk:

The probability of an undesirable event occurring & the impact/consequence of that event

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Risk Management:

- The process of managing risk using risk abatement plans
 - Identify & quantify risk elements technical, cost, scheduling & marketing risk elements
 - Reducing risk by means of risk abatement plans integrated into the critical path schedules
 - Monitoring progress of abatement plan
 - Highlight and manage risk as early as possible

When Do I Use It?

- Continuously to assess and abate:
 - Cost risks
 - Technology risks
 - Specification risks
 - Marketing risks
 - Installation risks
- DMAIC & DFSS projects to assure improvement & control is maintained
 - Ask what could go wrong? How do I prevent it?

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- During business process
 - (i.e. Tollgate Process)
 - Assess & abate risks of open checklist steps
 - Checklist steps closed at formal risk reviews, per tollgate requirements
- Can also be used to assess risks of key decisions:
 - Not doing a test
 - Delaying an analysis



The Key Steps of a Risk Management Process

- 1 Identify the risk elements & the risk types
- 2 Assign risk ratings to the risks: probability & consequence of risk
- 3 *Prioritize the risks* — *High (Red), Medium (Yellow), Low (Green)*
- 4 Identify the risk abatement plans (high & medium risks)
- 5 Incorporate the risk abatement plan into the work plans
- 6 Track the risk score reductions & abatement actions vs. plan
- 7 Continuously update for new risks & for reduction of old risks

Ways to Identify Risk:

- Brainstorming of knowledgeable individuals
- Review of lessons learned
- Previous experience
- Open checklist items or items with risk

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- FMEAs
- Previous design or producibility issues
- Look for:
 - Complex design issues
 - Cutting edge technology issues
 - New manufacturing processes
 - Untested assembly techniques
 - High cost or cost uncertainties
 - Schedule slip potentials
 - Specification shortfalls

Rating the Risk

<u>Risk Type</u>	Probability	<u>x</u>	<u>Consequence</u>	<u>= Risk Score</u>
Performance	4	Χ	5	= 20
Design Maturity	4	Χ	5	= 20
Technology	4	Χ	5	= 20
-				
-				

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- 1 Pick the risk categories that apply to the risk:
 - Cost
 - Technology
 - Specification
 - Marketing
 - Installation
- 2 Rate probability of occurrence (1 to 5)
 - Reference probability of occurrence rating guide
 - Use words in guide, not "gut feel"
- 3 Rate consequence of occurrence/impact (1 to 5)
 - Reference consequence of occurrence/impact of Risk chart — use words in guide
- 4 Risk factor score consequence x probability = 1 to 25

Risk Management Process Training

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Typical areas to be assessed	High-5	Significant-4	Moderate-3	Minor-2	Low-1
Costs	No experience with cost for similar project.	Cost estimates and resources extrapolated from prior project with 20-30% similar content.	Cost estimates and resources extrapolated from prior project with 40-60% similar content.	Cost estimates and resources extrapolated from prior project with 70-90% similar content.	Cost estimates, resource allocation and schedule achieved on prior project with greater than 90% similar content.
Performance	Performance estimates based on extrapolation of data outside range of current data base.	Estimates based on similar/empirical data within range of current data base.	Estimates based on analytical models within range of current data base with sub-scale tests to verify extrapolated data.	Extensive data base substantiated by near-to-actual size demonstration tests.	Risk abatement plan successfully completed. Performance level satisfies customer requirements.
Technology	New and unique technology with little analysis. Technology development plan may have been published.	New technology analyzed and basic physical principles demonstrated. Technology is feasible.	New/derivative technology with extensive analysis demonstrated by test.	Technology has been demonstrated on full scale application at actual customer conditions.	Technology is mature. All risk issues identified. Implementation program ready for launch.
Design Maturity	New, innovative or complex design in conceptual stage and no testing completed.	New, innovative or complex design subjected to limited sub- scale or component test.	Design is complex or derived from existing similar design with extensive analysis and verified by sub-scale or component test.	Extensive full scale testing of near-to-actual design at actual conditions. Meets all life requirements.	Extensive full scale testing of operational design at actual conditions complete. Meets life requirements. Product- ready design.
Fabrication and Assembly	No experience with similar fabrication and assembly processes.	Limited experience with similar fabrication and assembly processes in prototyping environment. Target cost being established by an NPI team.	Moderate experience with same fabrication and assembly processes in prototyping environment. Target costs acceptable.	Extensive experience with actual fabrication and assembly processes using methods planned for production and approved by manufacturing.	Risk abatement plan successfully completed. Fabrication and assembly processes are production ready. Target cost achieved.
Materials and Processes	New material based on reasonable set of goal data with an identified plan for full development.	New material with limited physical properties data base. New application of a material in a critical part.	Material with expanded data base and verified by sub-scale or component testing. Approved by the design review team.	Material demonstrated in large or full scale test at actual operating conditions and meets life requirements.	Material development risk abatement plan successfully completed for specific application. Production ready material/process.
Schedule	Greater than 70% chance of significant schedule slip.	Greater than 50% chance of moderate schedule slip.	50/50 chance of moderate schedule slip.	30% chance of moderate schedule slip.	Low probability of any significant schedule slip.
Resources	Critical people missing. No openings to hire.	Critical people identified but not yet members of team.	Critical people available but need training or only partially allocated to team.	Critical people partially allocated to project, not relieved of other jobs.	Critical people dedicated to team and trained.
Tools	No tools available.	Some custom tools must be developed. Depend on vendor.	Largely, commercial tools must be adapted to project.	Commercial tools available, but largely untested.	Only commercial tools required.
Process Capability	No process capability data.	Limited data from sub-scale design or components. Estimate of capability possible.	Process capability data exist for similar processes.	Designed experiments have been performed for the process. CTQs and significant variables have been defined.	Process has been specified with statistical tolerances based on process capability analysis.

Risk Management Process Training

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Typical areas to be assessed	High-5	Significant-4	Moderate-3	Minor-2	Low-1
Sigma Level	Sigma level unknown or estimated to be less than 2.	Sigma level estimated to be between 2 and 4. Means of increasing the level is unknown.	Sigma level estimated to be between 3 and 4. Means of increasing the level is understood.	Sigma level determined to be greater then 4 with plans identified to reach 5-6 Sigma.	Sigma level determined to be greater than 5.
Environment, Health and Safety	EHS issues/opportunities not considered. Impacts to project cost and schedule likely.	EHS issues/opportunities not fully identified or considered. Impact to project cost and schedule is possible.	EHS issues/opportunities identified. Impact to project cost and schedule is possible.	EHS issues/opportunities addressed. Impacts to project costs and schedule minimized but opportunities not fully realized.	EHS goals (e.g., 100% compliance; minimize injuries) achieved while contributing to productivity, quality and cost savings.
Market Issues	Proposed product/process has obvious negative impact	Proposed product/process has potential negative impact.	Proposed product/process has no identified negative impact.	Proposed product/process perceived to exhibit a positive market impact	Similar family of products or processes known to exhibit a very positive market impact
Measurement System	No system exists.	Prototype system exists.	System exists but it exhibits high levels of variability.	System exists and exhibits some variability.	System is in place, has been proven and exhibits minimum variability.
Process Scaling Factor	≥ 100:1 Process conceptual or demonstrated in laboratory only. Few parameters defined. No process cost model.	< 100:1 but > 20:1 Process demonstrated on lab scale or lab pilot only. Process cost model preliminary.	≤ 20:1 but > 5:1 Pilot scale process demonstrated which mimics future process. Process cost model feasible.	≤ 5:1 but > 2:1 Process demonstrated on production scale equipment on temporary basis (< 1 week).	<= 2:1 Fully integrated process demonstrated for sustained production run.
Teamwork	Far away sites, major language barrier.	Distant sites linked by phone. Some bilingual team members.	Distant sites linked by e-mail. Largely common language.	Distant sites linked by ethernet, e-mail. One language.	Co-located, one language.
Weight	Estimated weight based on scaling analysis only, or dependent upon material not fully developed and rated as significant or greater risk.	Estimates based on scaling to the operational configuration within 10% of goal. Materials have been selected/rated as moderate risk or less.	Estimates based on a mix of scaling analysis and design models. Results are consistent with production data base within 5% of goal.	Estimates based on the production configuration design models. Results are approved by NPI team within 3% of goal.	Risk abatement plan successfully completed. Current production hardware or actual weight is known within 1/2% of goal.
Software Development Process	Software development is characterized as ad hoc and occasionally chaotic. Few processes are defined and success depends on individual effort and heroics.	Basic project management processes are established to track costs, schedule and functionality. Process discipline is in place to repeat successful software development projects with similar applications.	Processes for management and technical activities are documented, standardized and integrated into everyday software processes for the organization. All projects use an approved, tailored version of the organization's standard software development process.	Detailed software development process and product quality measurements are systematically collected, analyzed and acted upon. Software processes and products are quantitatively understood and controlled.	Continuous process improvement is enabled by quantitative feedback from the software development process and from piloting innovative ideas and technologies.

Rating Risk: Consequence of Occurrence

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Consequence of occurrence/Impact of risk								
High-5	Significant-4	Moderate-3	Minor-2	Low-1				
Major degradation or shortfall in technical performance requirement which will jeopardize the program if not mitigated.	Significant degradation or shortfall in technical performance requirement which could have a major impact on program objectives if not mitigated.	Reduction in technical performance requirement which could be tolerated with limited impact on program objectives if not mitigated.	Minor reduction in technical performance requirements which could be tolerated with little impact on program objective if not mitigated.	No impact on program objectives				
EXAMPLE: Nearly impossible situation. Resolution requires mods to system interface which will ripple through the product. Cannot meet product introduction even if all available resources are applied to resolve the issue. Delay of product introduction will jeopardize market position. "If this is not solved, cost per unit increases 25%."	EXAMPLE: Possible, but really tough. Resolution will affect some system interfaces requiring new tests. Product introduction will be delayed but the timing and impact are understood. Can be implemented with significant cost impact.	EXAMPLE: Can be done. Resolution is limited to a specific component. Product introduction may be achieved as scheduled but will require reassignment of resources.	EXAMPLE: Typical issue. Resolution will not result in changes to product introduction. Current personnel can handle the issue without additional funding.	EXAMPLE: Standard design process. Resolution does not negatively affect quality, target cost or schedule.				

RISK FACTOR SCORE = PROBABILITY OF OCCURRENCE X CONSEQUENCE OF OCCURRENCE

Risks are categorized as follows:

- HIGH Risk = RED Risk = Score of 16 to 25
- *MEDIUM Risk* = **YELLOW** *Risk* = Score of 9 to 15

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- LOW Risk = **GREEN** Risk = Score of 1 to 8
- Goal: reduce all HIGH & MEDIUM risks to LOW
 - Using risk abatement actions
 - Watch out for scores of 8
 - Review them for possible abatement

Identify Risks Early & Create Abatement Plans to Reduce Risk



Reducing Risk Through Risk Abatement

Risk abatement actions are planned actions that reduce the probability of risk occurrence

- All HIGH (Red) and MEDIUM (Yellow) risks must have an abatement plan.
- Track action plans carefully to ensure risks are reduced per plan.

Reducing Risk Through Risk Abatement

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Example:

- Risk rating before abatement =
 prob x conseq = 5 x 4 = 20 (High)
- Risk rating after abatement = prob x conseq = 2 x 4 = 8 (Low)
- The risk changes to the lower value on the date the abatement actions take affect
- Normally the consequence of the risk occurring does not change, only the probability of the risk occurring changes.

Answers the Question: What Can We Do to Definitely Reduce the Risk?

Examples of Possible Risk Abatements

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- Complete analysis earlier
- Conduct periodic project reviews
- Involve customers/suppliers/ manufacturing/field early in the process
- Model or simulate the process
- Use robust design
- Test
 - Model or prototype early, conduct a scaled test or validation, test earlier
- Provide computer or technical tools to improve productivity
- Negotiate schedule, budget, or price changes
- Assure proper resourcing
 - Involve right skill base at right time in the project
 - Shift critical resources
 - Out-source work

Lessons Learned

- Include lessons learned from prior risk management efforts.
 - Include broad representation of people in risk assessment

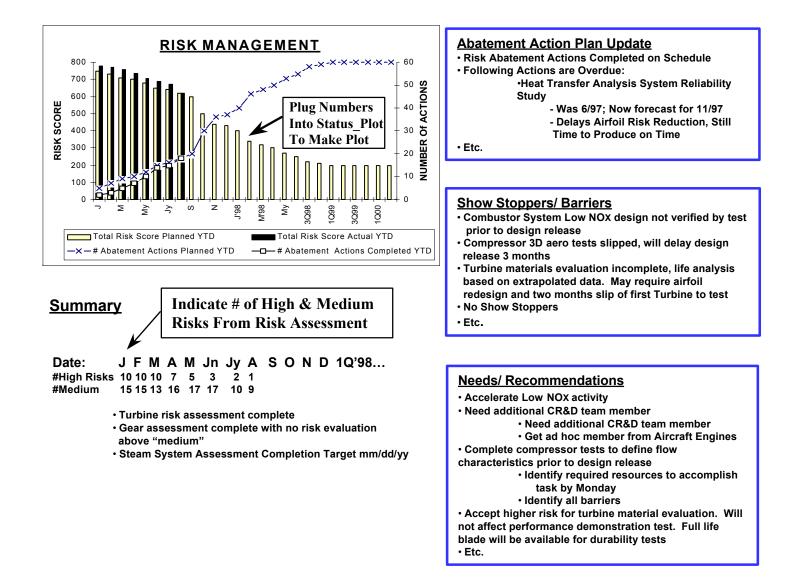
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- Include realistic actions in work plans & track closely.
- Assign ownership and completion dates for all actions.
- Risk review report out with appropriate managers is key.
- ASK: if test or analysis is the abatement,
 - Is there time for a back-up plan if it fails?
 - If no time to recover, start the back-up plan NOW.

Risk Management Process Training

TRACKING RISK: RISK STATUS SCORECARD EXAMPLE

XX GT PROGRAM XX NPI TEAM RISK SCORECARD



Risk Management Exercise: 30 mins.

- Working in teams, for one or more projects in your team, complete the template on the next page.
 - Risk Issues: Identify two or more risk issues.
 - Type: Identify the risk type. Cost, Technology, Specification, Marketing, or Installation
 - *Prob: Rate probability of occurrence (1 to 5)*
 - Reference probability of occurrence rating guide Use words in guide, not "gut feel."
 - Imp: Rate consequence of occurrence/impact (1 to 5).
 - Score: Risk factor score consequence x probability = 1 to 25.
 - Prioritize the risks High (Red), Medium (Yellow), Low (Green).
 - Remediation Action: Identify the risk abatement plans (high & medium risks).
 - Owner: Identify the owner of the abatement action.
 - Measure of Success: Identify how you will measure that the abatement was successful.
 - Date Done: Estimate when in the project the abatement action will be completed.
 - Resid. Risk: Calculate the risk score after the abatement.
- One or Two teams will be asked to report on their findings.

Risk Management Exercise

Risk Issue (group by Accept? sub-category)	Туре	Prob	Imp	Score	Remediation Action	Owner	Measure of Success	Date Done	Resid Risk	Y or N
How to assure employees get properly trained in new "improved" process	Installation	5	4	20	New controlled procedures that require formal training & signoff records for all trained operators - posted at workstations	Mike	Verify posted authorized list	8/98	5	Y

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Mistake Proofing



Understand difference between errors and defects.

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- Understand how defects originate.
- Recognize elements of source inspection and its role in defect prevention.
- Identify key mistake proofing devices.
- Show mistake proofing as a proactive tool.
- Show how mistake proofing fits into the Six Sigma methodology.



Mistake Proofing

A technique for eliminating errors.

Making it impossible to make mistakes.

"It is good to do it right the first time: it is even better to make it impossible to do it wrong the first time."



Principles for Mistake Proofing

- Respect the intelligence of workers.
- Take over repetitive tasks or actions that depend on constantly being alert (vigilance) or memory.
- Free a worker's time and mind to pursue more creative and value-adding activities.
- It is not acceptable to produce even a small number of defects or defective products.
- The objective is zero defects.

Exercise

Mistake Proofing in Everyday Life

- Working in small groups, develop a list of examples of mistake proofing that we experience every day.
- Be prepared to present your ideas to the rest of the group at: _____
- Examples:
 - Automatic Seatbelts
 - Auto-Shut-Off Irons
 - Automatic Sinks in Public Facilities

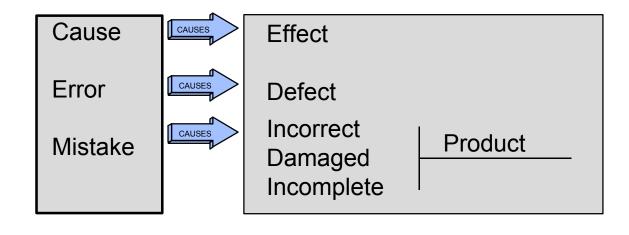




They are not the same thing!

Defects are the result of error.

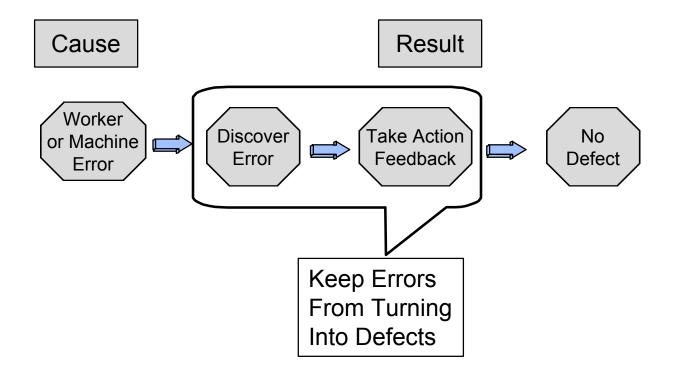
Error is the cause of defects.







Preventing Defects



Why Do Errors Occur?

- Incorrect procedures
- Excessive variation in the process

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- Excessive variation in the inputs
- Inaccurate measuring devices
- Human error

Ten Types of Human Error

- 1) **Forgetfulness** (not concentrating)
- 2) Errors in mis-communications (jump to conclusions)

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- 3) Errors in identification (view incorrectly...too far away)
- 4) Errors made by untrained workers
- 5) Willful errors (ignore rules)
- 6) *Inadvertent errors* (distraction, fatigue)
- 7) Errors due to slowness (delay in judgment)
- 8) Errors due to lack of standards (written & visual)
- 9) Surprise errors (machine not capable, malfunctions)
- 10) Intentional errors (sabotage least common)

Use Mistake Proofing to Eliminate these Human Errors

Human Error-Provoking Conditions

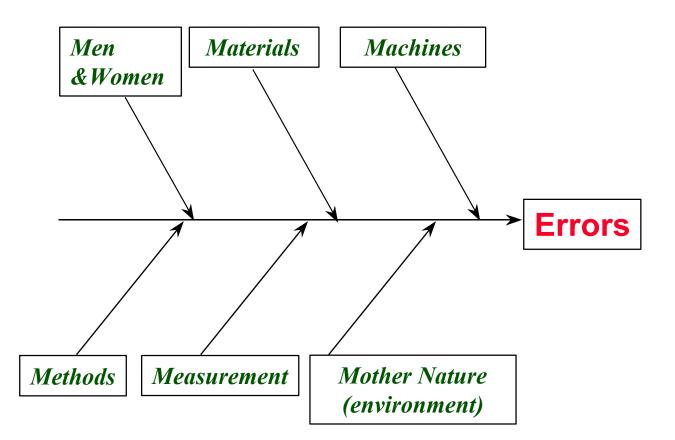
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- 1) Adjustments
- 2) Tooling/tooling change
- 3) Dimensionality/specification/critical condition
- 4) Many parts/mixed parts
- 5) Multiple steps
- 6) Infrequent production
- 7) Lack of, or ineffective standards
- 8) Symmetry
- 9) Asymmetry
- 10) Rapid repetition
- 11) High volume/extremely high volume
- 12) Environmental conditions
 - a. Material/process handling
 - b. Housekeeping
 - c. Foreign matter
 - d. Poor lighting



Sources of Errors

Variables that determine whether a product is correctly manufactured.





Types of Errors

Break into groups of 3 to 4 people each.

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- Spend 15 minutes brainstorming types of errors or mistakes that can be made in your work area or relating to your project.
- List your ideas on a flip chart.
- Be prepared to make a short presentation to the other groups at:



Are Errors Unavoidable?

Traditional view: errors are inevitable.

- People are only human
- There is variation in everything
- Lack of standard operating procedures result in each person having their own way to do things
- Inspection is necessary

Six Sigma view: errors can be eliminated.

- Not all errors can be eliminated, but many can and others can be reduced
- The more errors we can eliminate, the better our quality
- The need for inspection can be reduced or eliminated



Is Inspection the Best Method?

Sampling inspection is not 100% effective.

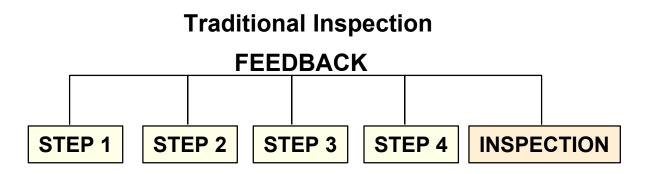
- Sampling helps the manufacturer, but not necessarily the customer
- Traditional 100% inspection is not 100% effective either.
 - The **user** is the best inspector



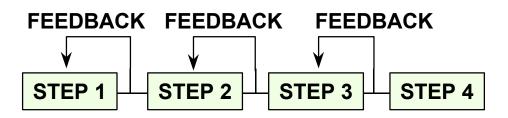
Mistake Proofing

100% error-proofing.

Immediate feedback so action can be taken.

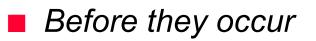


Mistake Proofing





When Can We Find Mistakes?



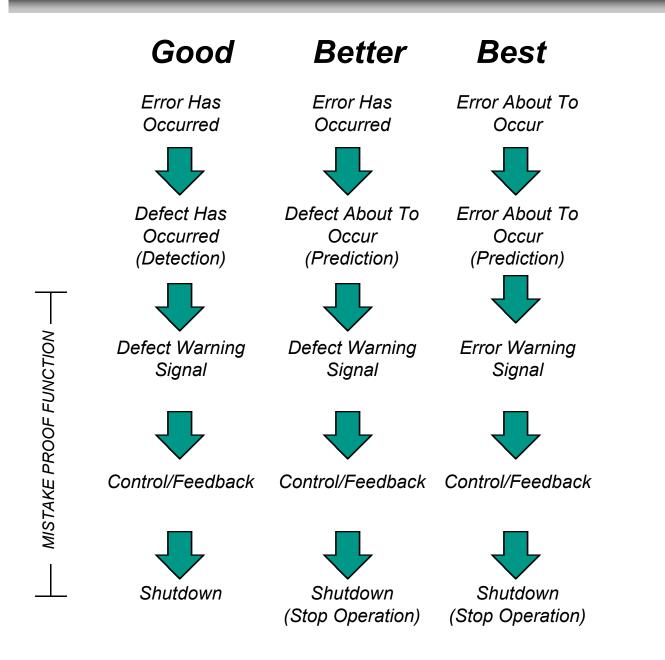
Prediction or Prevention

After they occur

– Detection



Elimination of Defects



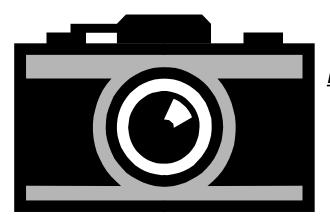
Eliminate Defects Through Error Reduction



Mistake Proofing Techniques

Technique	Prediction/ Prevention	Detection
SHUTDOWN	When a mistake is about to be made.	When a mistake or defect has been made.
CONTROL	Errors are impossible.	Defective items can not move on to the next step.
WARNING	That something is about to go wrong.	Immediately when something does go wrong.

Examples: Shutdown

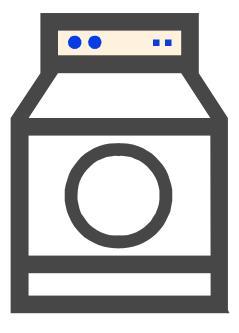


<u>PREDICTION/PREVENTION</u> Some cameras will not function when there is not enough

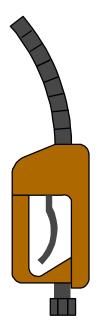
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light to take a picture.

<u>DETECTION</u> Some laundry dryers have a device that shuts them down when overheating is detected.



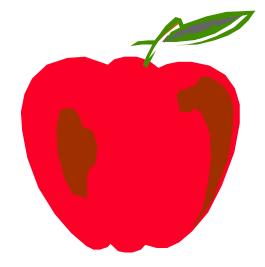
Examples: Control



PREDICTION/PREVENTION When gas stations still offered leaded gasoline in addition to unleaded gasoline, the nozzle on the unleaded pump and the hole for the gas tank were smaller than that for leaded gasoline.

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DETECTION A fruit orchard that takes great pride in its oversized apples, assures only the biggest apples get to customers by passing all apples through a sizer. Those that do not make it are sent to the discount outlet.







PREDICTION/PREVENTION

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Many cars have warning systems to alert the driver that not all seat belts have been fastened.

<u>DETECTION</u> Smoke detectors provide a warning that smoke has been detected and that there is a possible fire.



Prediction/Prevention and Detection Methods

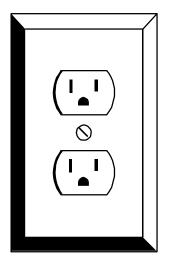
Contact methods

— Contact with the part highlights errors

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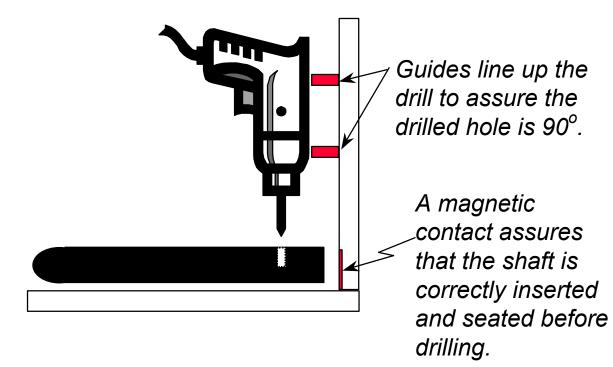
- Fixed-value methods
 - Errors are detected through **counting**
- Motion-step methods
 - Errors are detected by **motion** or lack of it



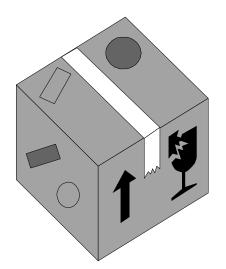


U. S. Electrical outlets have been mistake proofed to assure proper polarity. It is impossible to put a plug in the outlet incorrectly.

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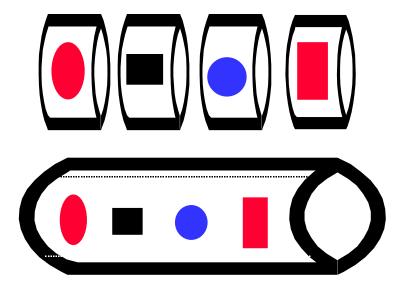


Example: Fixed Value Methods



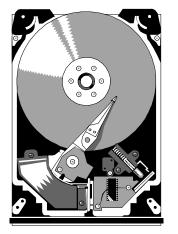
Four different hazardous material warning labels had to be applied before shipping the product. Boxes without the labels would be returned which would result in delayed shipments.

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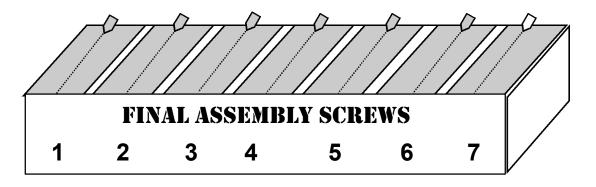
The labels were on four separate rolls. When all four labels were put onto one roll, it was easy for the worker to know when a label had been missed.

Example: Motion Step Methods



Seven screws in various sizes were inserted in the final assembly of a CD ROM drive. Often a screw would be forgotten resulting in high warranty claims.

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The seven different screws were put into bins with photo-electric switches. When a screw is removed, the beam is broken. The part cannot move on to the next operation until the beam is broken on all seven bins. **Typical Mistake Proofing Tools**

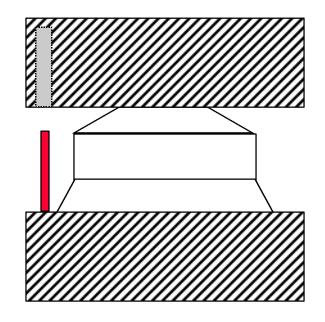
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Limit Switches

Guide Pins

Counters





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Sometimes the set-up operator would set the top and bottom jig incorrectly resulting in defective parts and possible damage to the die. A guide pin prevents the press from closing unless the proper jig is used and it is correctly set up. Each jig has its own unique guide pin.





A forklift truck has a limit switch that will not allow the truck to move forward or in reverse with the mast raised. Another limit switch shuts the forklift down when the load exceeds the maximum weight capacity.

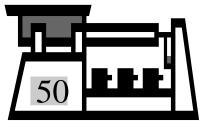
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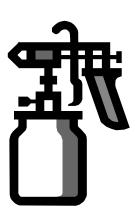
Example: Counters

A scale, specially designed for the screw and bolt packaging operation, digitally displayed the number of screws in the package based on the weight of the screw. The operator no longer had to convert the weight of the screws and bolts into number of pieces.



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An enamel spraying operation required each part to have short sprays of enamel applied before the part was baked. It was determined that five short sprays gave the optimum coverage. A limit switch was put on the pump that would allow only an 0.5 second spray. A counter was also installed on the spray trigger. Only when the spray trigger was squeezed five times would the part be released to the oven.



Brackets/parts that are non-reversible or fully reversible at assembly.

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- A computer spell checker.
- Color coded documents—credit card receipts or invoices (the customer gets the yellow copy, the merchant gets the white copy).
- Features that prevent reversed assembly—tabs, slots, etc.
- Features that are visibly verifiable after assembly.
- Make it easy to do it right.
 - Checklists
 - Effective data collection formats
 - Work flows with fewer hand-offs
 - Symbols
 - Color coding

Other Examples

Use shapes.

- Store different types of parts in different shaped bins
- Notch a stack of forms so it's easy to tell if the forms are out of order

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- Hardness check after all thermal processing (prevents material mix-up or missed heat-treat).
- For parts with multiple braze cycles—lower braze temperature alloy for each cycle (prevent remelting).
- Drop-down box in a data base.
- Mutilate scrap hardware immediately.
- Keep shipping heights as low as possible but always less than 13'6" (eliminate need for special routing).



In groups of 4 to 5, develop a way to mistake proof the problem you have been presented with.

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Be prepared to present your solution by: _____

Mistake Proofing Challenges

1. ATM customers complain that they never know the right way to insert their ATM card and usually it takes a couple of tries.

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- 2. A local bottling company wants to make sure that all bottles are filled with exactly the right amount of soda.
- 3. A large pharmaceutical company is trying to develop a way to assure elderly people living alone take their prescription medicine at the right time and in the correct dosage.
- 4. A manufacturer of home power tools wants to make sure that customers are wearing eye and hand protection before using their equipment.
- 5. A consumer electronics company has had several customer complaints lately that their instructions were missing from their product.

Mistake Proofing Challenges cont.

(H)

- 6. 9 different tools are needed to change a jig and die. Often, in the middle of the changeover, the set-up operator realizes a tool is missing and has to stop to look for the tool.
- 7. An easy-to-assemble-furniture manufacturer has received several complaints about holes not being tapped for all screws. Because the furniture is made from hardwood, the customers have to drill the holes themselves.
- 8. A contact lens solution manufacturer received complaints from distributors that some customers found empty boxes with their shipments. The company wants to make sure no more empty boxes are shipped.

Mistake Proofing Challenges solutions

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- 1. Put a lip on one long side of the card. Standardize the way cards are inserted and then clearly mark the proper installation on the card.
- 2. Install a photoelectric switch that can measure the amount in the bottle. As part of the nozzle system, include a probe that shuts the nozzle off when the liquid touches the probe.
- 3. Sell the medication in a dispensing mechanism that helps people keep track of the day and whether or not they've taken their daily medication. Devise a dispenser that releases the proper dosage of medication on the right day at the right time.
- 4. Have a device on the gloves that must come in contact with the saw handle in order for it to run. Have a special switch on the saw that must be flipped on to confirm that the safety glasses are on.
- 5. Package the instructions in sets of 25. In final assembly, release boxes
 25 at a time. If an instruction sheet remains after the 25 boxes are complete, it can be assumed one box doesn't have instructions.
- 6. Set up peg boards for each set-up operation. Paint silhouettes of each tool needed on the pegboard. When preparing for the changeover, assemble the tools using the peg board. Missing tools will be obvious.
- 7. Put a counter on the drill that will not allow the part to be released until the right number of taps have been made.
- 8. Once the boxes are sealed, as they travel on the conveyor belt to final packaging, blow air at them. Those that get blown off the conveyor belt are empty.



Think of a situation in your business where mistake proofing can be applied. Describe the following aspects of the concern:

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Problem

Situation



Mistake Proofing Steps





Prioritize problems.



Seek out the *root cause*.



Generate *solutions*.





- Brainstorming
- Customer returns
- Defective parts analyses
- Error reports
- Failure Mode and Effects Analysis (FMEA)



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- Frequency
- Wasted materials
- Rework time
- Detection time
- Detection cost
- Overall cost



Seek out the *root cause*

- Do not use mistake proofing to cover-up problems or to treat symptoms.
- Use mistake proofing to correct errors at their source.
- Other methods to determine the root cause are:
- Ask "why" five times
- Cause & effect diagrams
- Brainstorming
- Stratification
- Scatterplot



Make it impossible to do it wrong.

- Cost/benefit analysis.
 - How long will it take for the solution to pay for itself?
- Thinking outside of the box.



• Have errors been eliminated?

— Why or why not?

What is the **financial impact**?

Mistake Proofing Advantages

- No formal training programs required.
- Eliminates many inspection operations.

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- Relieves operators from repetitive tasks.
- Promotes creativity and value adding activities.
- Results in defect-free work.
- Provides immediate action when problems arise.

Mistake Proofing Exercise: 20 mins.

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Working in teams, for one (or more) project(s) per team identify possible areas to mistake proof.

One or two teams will be asked to report on their findings.

Appendix*

Contact Detection Methods

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- Limit switches
- Microswitches
- Touch switches
- Differential transformers
- Trimetrons
- Liquid level relays

*Source: Shingo, Shigeo, Zero Quality Control: Source Inspection and the Poka-Yoke System, Productivity Press, 1986.

Appendix*

Non-Contact Methods

— Proximity detection measures

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- Photoelectric switches
- Beam sensors
- Fiber sensors
- Area sensors
- Positioning sensors
- Dimension sensors
- Displacement sensors
- Metal passage sensors
- Color marking sensors
- Vibration sensors
- Double-feed sensors
- Welding position sensors
- Tap sensors
- Fluid elements

*Source: Shingo, Shigeo, Zero Quality Control: Source Inspection and the Poka-Yoke System, Productivity Press, 1986.



Other Methods

Detecting pressure, temperature, electric current, vibration, number of cycles, timing, and information transmission.

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- Pressure gages
- Pressure sensitive switches
- Thermometers
- Thermostats
- Thermistors
- Meter relays
- Current Eyes
- Vibration sensors
- Counters
- PLCs
- Fiber sensors

*Source: Shingo, Shigeo, Zero Quality Control: Source Inspection and the Poka-Yoke System, Productivity Press, 1986.



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Control Plans

Control Plan

A good Control Pan will incorporate at least:

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Customer-driven Critical To Quality (CTQs) Input & Output variables Appropriate tolerances (specifications for CTQs) Designated control methods, tools and systems SPC Checklists Mistake proofing systems Standard Operating Procedures Manufacturing/Quality/Engineering Standards Reaction Plan

Control Plan

- This document is an extension of the Current Controls column of the FMEA
- For every CTQ and Input, the measurement system capability (Gage R&R) should be identified

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- For Variable data, the Sigma-level should be calculated
- The specifics of the sampling plan with associated Reaction Plan should be listed

Control Plan and the relationship to the FMEA

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The FMEA should be a key source for the identification of key variables to control and for an initial evaluation of the current Control Plan

RocessSep	KeyAccess Input	RienielFalueMode	Rotenial Falue Ellicots	S E V	RdenfielCauses	0 C C	QuentControls	DET

Rocess	RocessSep	Input	Opt	Rocess Specification(LSL, USL, Taget)	Çdx/Date (SanpleSze)	Mæsuenært Tednique	% r8 r PT	Quient Control Method	Sample Size	Sample Frequency	ReactionPlan

Control Plan Methods

Better

Inspection and test methods

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Checklists

Standard Operating Procedures ("SOPs")

Statistical Process Control

Mistake Proofing Device

Automation

If the method is complicated, refer to a procedure by document number Any changes in the process should consider changes in the Control Method Control methods must include a training plan and process auditing system Control method should identify person responsible for the control of each critical variable

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A good Reaction Plan will incorporate:

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Actions that are the responsibility of people closest to the process References to an SOP and identify the person responsible for the reaction procedure

Clear identification and quarantine of suspect or nonconforming product

Additional questions to ask when implementing a Control Plan:

Inputs:How are they monitored?How often are they verified?Are optimum target values andspecifications known?How much variation is there around thetarget value?How consistent are they?What causes the variation in the Input?How often is the Input out of control?Which Inputs should have controlcharts?

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Additional questions to ask when implementing a Control Plan:

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Standard Operating Procedures Do they exist? Are they understood? Are they being followed? Are they current? Is operator certification performed? Is there a process audit schedule? System Noise Does it exist? Is it impossible or impractical to control? How robust is the system to noise? Additional questions to ask when implementing a Control Plan:

What special equipment is needed for measurement? What is the measurement capability? Who does the measurement? How often is measurement taken? How are routine data recorded? Who plots the control chart (if one is used) and interprets the information? What key procedures are required to maintain control? What is done with product that is off spec? How is the process routinely audited? Who makes the audit? How often? How is it recorded? Is operator training performed and documented?

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Product: Key Contact: Phone:		Core Team:							Date (Orig): Date (Rev):		
Process	Process Step	Input	Output	Process Specification (LSL, USL, Target)	Cpk / Cp / or Z Date Performed	Measurement Technique	%R&R P/T	Sample Size	Sample Frequency	Control Method	Reaction Plan

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contplan.xls

Control Plan Example

Product: Key Contact: Phone:		Core Team:							Date (Orig): Date (Rev):		
Process	Process Step	Input	Output	Process Specification (LSL, USL, Target)	Cpk / Cp / or Z Date Performed	Measurement Technique	%R&R P/T	Sample Size	Sample Frequency	Control Method	Reaction Plan
Cable Assy	Connector Attach	Crimp Force		80 - 120 lbs	Z = 4.2/15-Sep-98	Enerpac Load Cell	5%	100%	continuous	Crimping SOP/xbar chart	Call Dimos
	End Polish	Proper Polish		200-400 microns	Z = 2.1/15-Sep-98	Profilometer	22%	5/lot	each lot	Polish SOP/x bar chart	Call Dimos
	Measure Attenuation		dB	0 - 0.27 dB/meter	Z = 0.5/15-Sep-98	Fotec Light Meter	?	100%	Continuous	Test Procedure/ x bar chart	Call Dimos

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Variable Control Charts

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12.101

Statistical Process Control (SPC)

- The purpose of statistical process control (SPC) is to indicate:
 - when a process is working at its intended best (only common cause variation present)

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- No corrective action is necessary.
- Unnecessary actions may actually increase process variability.
- when a process is disturbed and needs corrective action of some type (special cause variation present)

Control charts:

- are used to monitor both inputs to process, parameters of a process, or process outputs (Xs and Y)
- are used to recognize when a process has gone out of control
- are used for identifying the presence of special cause variation within a process
- do not tell us if we meet specification limits
- neither identify nor remove special causes



- Unusual
- Sporadic
- Specific

Special Cause Strategy:

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Use timely data.	
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Ask, "What has changed?"

Take quick, local action to avoid recurrence.

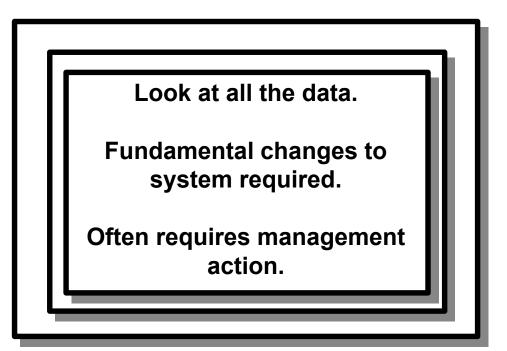
Use knowledge of the process to eliminate or reduce the assignable causes to reduce variability and to improve the process.



- Natural
- Random
- Requires system changes to improve

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Common Cause Strategy:



Definitions

In Control

— No special cause variation present

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— All variation is random

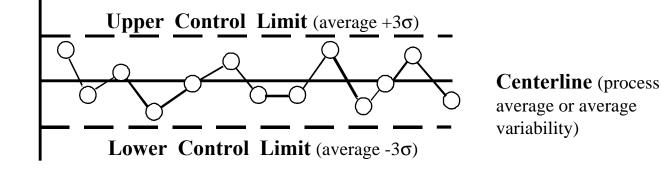
Out of Control

- At least one special cause is present
- Some variation is non-random



The Control Chart

- A time ordered plot of the data.
- Reflects the expected range of variation of the data.
- Identifies when a special cause is acting on the process.





Some Variable Control Charts

- **X Bar Chart:** a plot of the sample means over time.
- R Chart: a plot of the range (difference between highest and lowest values) of a sample over time.
- Individuals Chart: a plot of the individual values over time.
- Moving Range Chart: a plot of the moving range (for two samples |X_i - X_{i-1}|) over time.



Five Main Uses of Control Charts

- To reduce scrap and rework and for improving productivity.
- **Defect prevention.** In control means less chance of nonconforming units produced.
- Prevents unnecessary process adjustments by distinguishing between common cause variation and special or assignable cause variation.
- Provides diagnostic information so that an experienced operator can determine the state of the process by looking at patterns within the data. The operator can then make the necessary changes to improve the process performance.
- Provides information about important process parameters over time.



Rational subgroups: collect data so that subgroups contain only common cause variation. The same as in capability analysis.

(H)

- Choose rational subgroups to gain as much information as possible about the process.
- To detect process shifts: each subgroup should consist of measurements taken at approximately the same time.
 - Choose a sample so that it maximizes the likelihood of detecting variability between the samples

Sampling

Sample size: The higher the process volume and the easier and cheaper the measurements of the CTQ characteristic, the more likely you are to select an X and R chart (typically 3 - 5 data points per sample) over an Individual and Moving Range chart (I and MR).

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- Frequency of sampling: Consider hourly, daily, shifts, monthly, annually, lots, and so on. The better your process is performing, the less frequently you will need to sample.
- Current industry standard tends to favor smaller, more frequent samples.



Setting Up and Maintaining Control Limits

- Calculate the control limits with 20 25 samples (e.g., for the X and R chart that would mean 20 - 25 samples of size 3 - 5).
- If process is in control, go to the last step.
- If process is not in control, try to identify special cause.
- Remove special cause, recollect data, recalculate control limits, ... until you find the process is in control.
- For future monitoring, do not change the limits unless a permanent, desired change has been made to the process.



Types of Errors in Control Charts

- *3s-level Control Limits*
 - Created by Shewhart to minimize two types of mistakes
 - Placed empirically because they minimize the two types of mistakes
 - Are not probability limits

Two types of Mistakes:

- Calling a special cause of variation a common cause of variation (Missing an chance to identify a change in the process)
- Calling a common cause of variation a special cause of variation (Interfering with a stable process, wasting resources looking for special causes of variation that do not exist.



Two Types of Control Chart



- Uses Measured Values

 Cycle Time, Lengths, Diameters, Drops, etc.

 Generally One Characteristic Per Chart
- More Expensive, But More Information



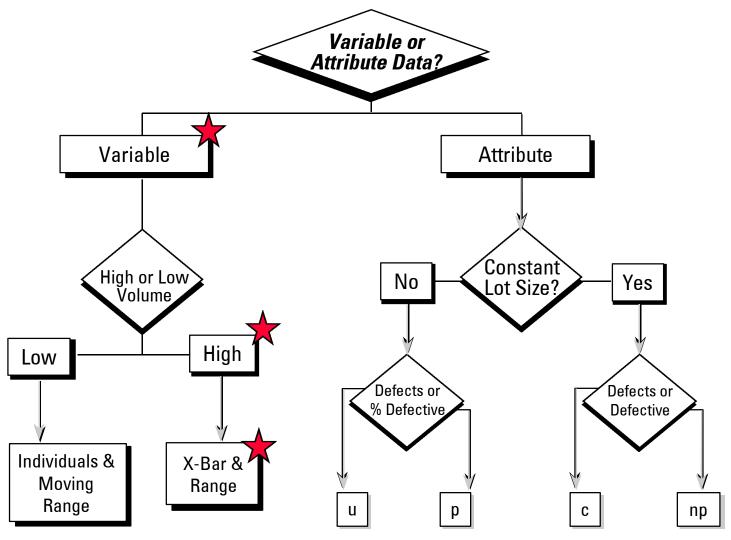
- Pass/Fail, Good/Bad, Go/No-Go Information
- Can Be Many Characteristics Per Chart
- Less Expensive, But Less Information



(_

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X Bar & Range





X Bar & R Chart

Time	0740	0755	0815	0830	0850	0912	0935	1000	1015	1035	1100	1115
1	.056											
2	.060											
3	.058											
Total	.174											
x	.058											
R	.004											

Monitor the mean value and the variability of the process.



X Bar & R Chart (cont.)

Time	0740	0755	0815	0830	0850	0912	0935	1000	1015	1035	1100	1115
1	.056	.057	.058	.057	.059	.057	.055	.060	.060			
2	.060	.063	.060	.065	.063	.059	.059	.062	.066			
3	.058	.060	.059	.061	.061	.058	.057	.061	.063			
Total	.174	.180	.177	.183	.183	.174	.171	.183	.189			
x	.058	.060	.059	.061	.061	.058	.057	.061	.063			
R	.004	.006	.002	.008	.004	.002	.004	.002	.006			



X Bar & R Chart Control Limits

\overline{X} Chart: $UCL = \overline{\overline{X}} + A_2 \overline{R} \approx \overline{\overline{X}} + 3\mathbf{s}_{\overline{x}}$ $LCL = \overline{\overline{X}} - A_2 \overline{R} \approx \overline{\overline{X}} - 3\mathbf{s}_{\overline{x}}$

where
$$\boldsymbol{s}_{\overline{x}} = \boldsymbol{s} / \sqrt{n}$$

R Chart: $UCL = D_4 \overline{R} \approx \overline{R} + 3\boldsymbol{s}_R$ $LCL = D_3 \overline{R} \approx \overline{R} - 3\boldsymbol{s}_R$



X Bar & R Chart Example

Minitab File: Xbar_r.mtw contains measured data for a main shaft O.D.—see column 1(C1) = NC_Lathe. The data is in subgroups of size 3.

The O.D. specifications are .060 +/- .003.

==============

- 1. Check stability with a run chart. Check for normality.
- 2. Using Minitab, create an Xbar and R Chart what are your observations?
- 3. Do the given specifications (specs) "relate" to the Control Limits on the Xbar Chart? If so, how?
- 4. Use the given data and the specs to obtain Process Capability estimates for this machining operation.
- 5. How does Process Control "relate" to Process Capability?

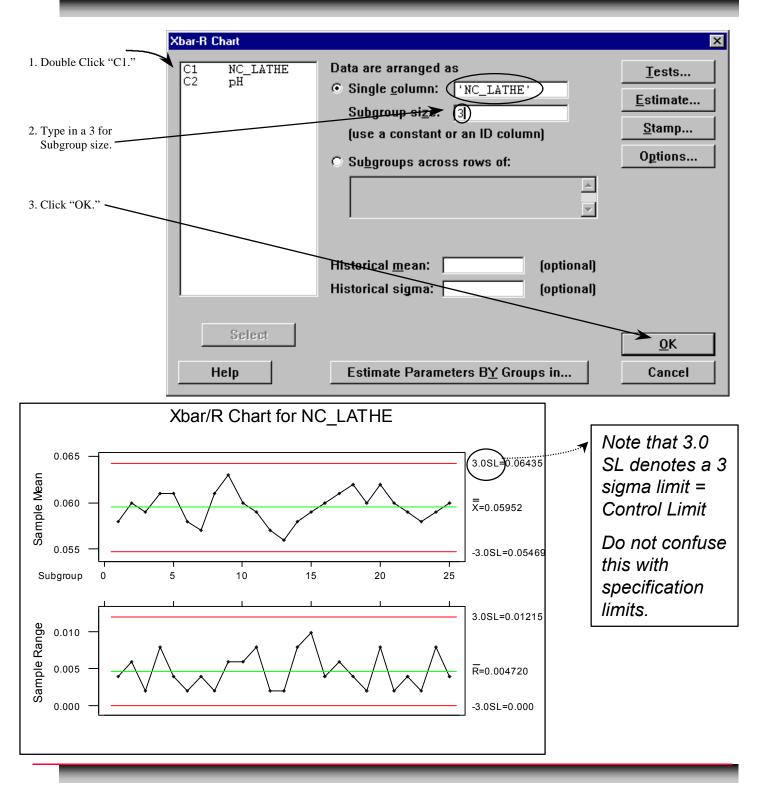
X Bar & R Chart Example (cont.)

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MINITAB FILE: Xbar_r. mtw

MINITAB										₽ ×					
<u>File E</u> dit <u>M</u>	lanip <u>C</u> alc <u>S</u> tat		<u>W</u> indow												
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Worksheet was s Quality Tools				Box-Cox Transformation.											
		eliability/Surviva (ultivariate		X <u>b</u> ar-R											
		ime <u>S</u> eries		Xb <u>a</u> r-S											
		ables	+	I-MB I-MB.D. (Debuser A) (Shin											
		onparametrics	•	I-MR-R (B <u>e</u> tween/Within ⊒-MR	y										
		DA Ioner and Cased	_ + د دنده د												
	<u>「</u>	ower and Sample	e 512e 💌	⊠bar B S											
				Individuals											
Xbar_r.n				Moving Range											
	C1	C2	3	Е <u>₩</u> МА		C6	C7	C8	C9						
↓	NC_LATHE	рН		Moving A <u>v</u> erage						╷╴╝					
1	0.0560000	4.50000		CUSU <u>M</u> Zana						_					
2	0.0600000	4.20000		Z <u>o</u> ne						_					
3	0.0580000	4.30000		<u>P</u>						_					
4	0.0570000	4.40000		<u>N</u> P <u>C</u>											
5	0.0630000	4.20000		<u>u</u>											
6	0.0600000	4.20000	_	_											
7	0.0580000	4.20000													
▲	0 0600000	1 30000													
	I chart for subgroup	means and rand	les												
poraw a contro	i charcior subgroup	means anu tan <u>u</u>	100												

X Bar & R Chart - Output



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X Bar & R Chart - Output

CONTINUED:

- 3. Use the given <u>data and the specs</u> to obtain Process Capability estimates for this machining operation.
- 4. How does Process Control "relate" to Process capability?

Use the Minitab Six Sigma <u>Process Capability</u> Tool with: LSL = 0.057 Target = 0.060 USL = 0.063



X Bar & R Chart Exercise

Minitab File: Xbar_r.mtw contains pH data in time order from a protective coating bath -see C2. Five readings are taken every hour during the first shift. The minimum allowable pH value is 4.15.

Using Minitab, create an Xbar and R chart.

What are your observations?

What is the process Capability?

Comment on process Control vs. Capability.



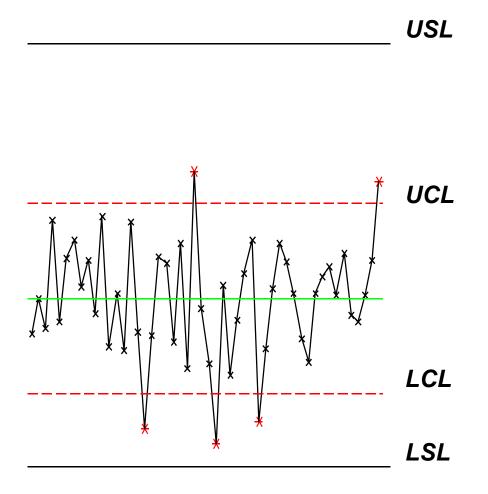
Note:

- **Do not** confuse the control limits with the specification limits.
- Specification limits are external to the process. For instance, they could represent engineering requirements to satisfy a CTQ characteristic.
- Control limits are internal to the process, they reflect the expected range of variation for that process.
- Specification limits are for individual values, whereas on an X bar chart the control limits are for the sample averages.

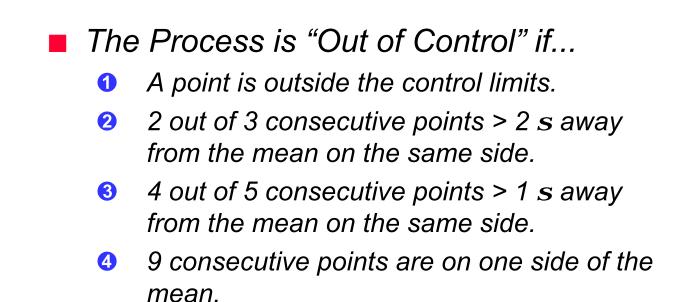
Control Limits vs. Specification Limits

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The control limits are for averages, not individual values. Most specifications are for individual values.



Four Western Electric Rules

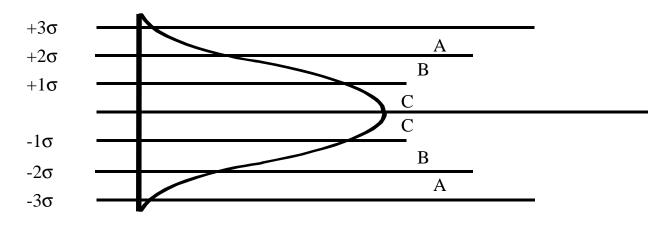


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Minitab Rules

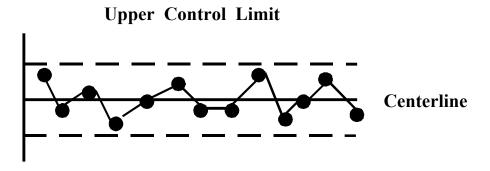
- 1. One point beyond zone A.
- 2. Nine points in a row in zone C or beyond. (All on one side.)
- 3. Six points in a row, all increasing or decreasing.
- 4. Fourteen points in a row, alternating up and down.
- 5. Two out of three points in a row in zone A or beyond.
- 6. Four out of five points in a row in zone B or beyond.
- 7. Fifteen points in a row in zone C, above or below center.
- 8. Eight points in a row beyond zone C, above or below center.





Process In-Control

Exhibiting random variation around the centerline



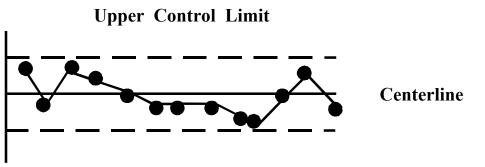
Lower Control Limit

No Evidence of Assignable Cause

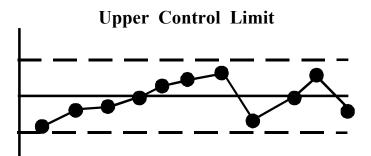


Process Out of Control

Data Trending Downward or Upward Six or More Data Points in a Row



Lower Control Limit



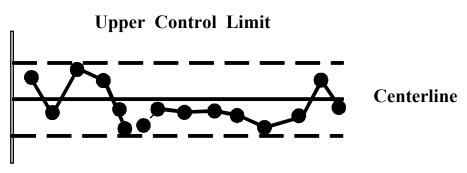
Lower Control Limit

Assignable Cause Evident

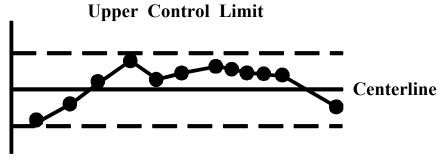
Process Out of Control

A Run of Nine or More Data Points in a Row On Either Side of the Centerline

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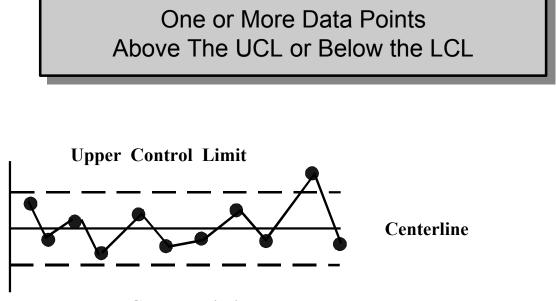
Lower Control Limit



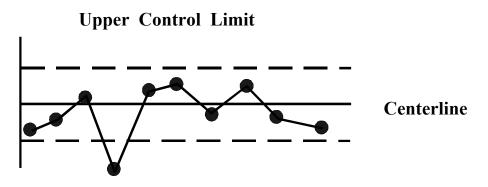
Lower Control Limit

Assignable Cause Evident

Process Out of Control



Lower Control Limit



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Lower Control Limit

Assignable Cause Evident



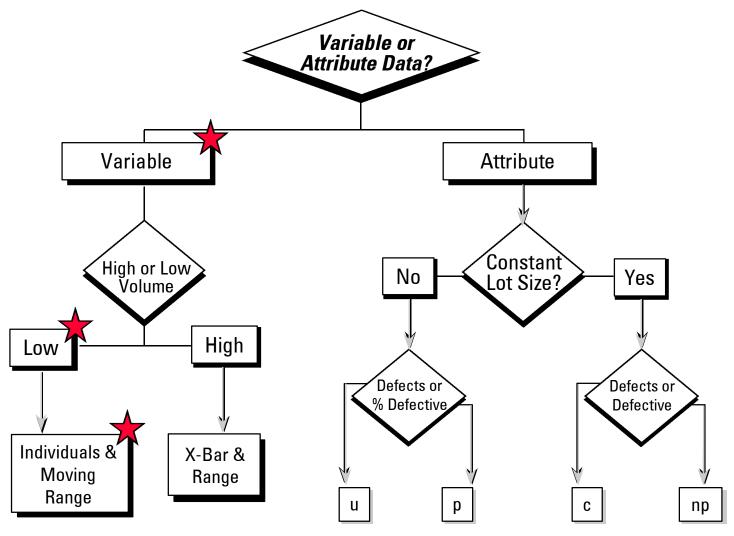
Best Uses of X Bar & R Charts

- Medium To High Volume Operations
- Continuous vs. Intermittent Operations
- Six Ms Are Stable, Repetitious

Selecting the Appropriate Control Chart

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Individuals & Moving Range



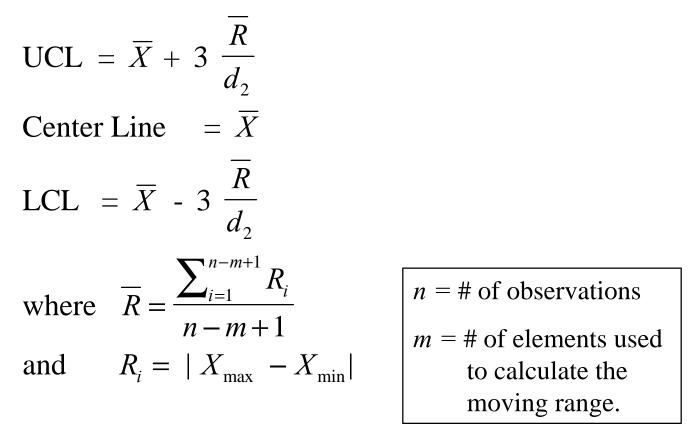


Individuals & Moving Range Charts

- More useful in low volume, intermittent operations
- Similar to X bar & R Charts, Except...
 - Single Values, Not Subgroups
 - Range Values Must Be Artificially Constructed
 - Somewhat "Noisier" Because Of Loss Of "Damping"

I & MR Chart Control Limits

I Chart:



MR Chart:

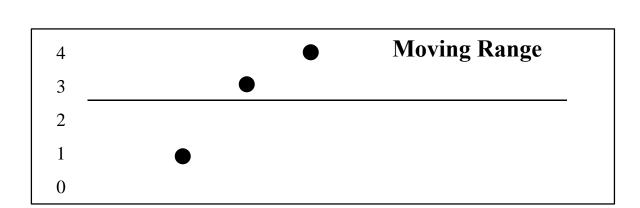
Center Line = \overline{R}

Calculate control limits using Minitab

Building an Individuals and Moving Range Chart

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	Individual Data	Moving Range
	55	N/A
	56	ABS(55-56) = 1
	59	ABS(56-59) = 3
	55	ABS(59-55) = 4
60		Individuals
59	ullet	
58		
57		
	•	



56

55



Example:

Individuals & Moving Range Chart

- Data from a shaft diameter turning operation are entered on the control chart form on the next page for 25 consecutive pieces of product, in production sequence.
- The data is in Minitab File: Imr.mtw, column shaft_OD. Using Minitab, create the I-MR chart.
 - Analyze your results. Are there out-ofcontrol indications? List the indications, if any, by type and by plot point numbers.
- What is happening in the process?

Example: Individuals & Moving Range Chart

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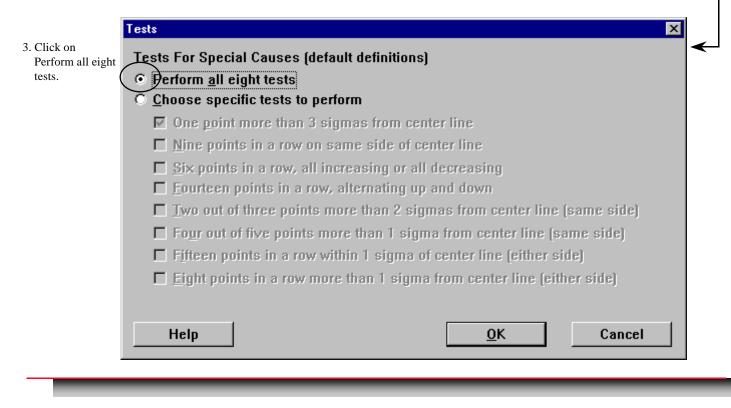
MINITAB FILE: Imr.mtw

MINITAB									_ 8 ×
<u>File E</u> dit <u>N</u>	<u>1</u> anip <u>C</u> alc <u>S</u> t			<u>H</u> elp Si <u>x</u> Sigma					
🖻 🖬 🤞	🗐 👗 🖻	<u>Basic Statistics</u> Regression	*						
E Session			· · ·					-	- D × I
	et size:	DOE	+						
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	et was s	<u>Q</u> uality Tools	•	Box-Cox Transformation	ľ				
		Reliability/Surv	ival 🕨	Xbar-R					
		<u>M</u> ultivariate Time Series		Xb <u>a</u> r-S					
		Tables		Į-MR					
		Nonparametric:	s 🕨	I-MR-R (B <u>e</u> tween/Within)					
		<u>E</u> DA	+	<u>Z</u> -MR	_				
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				<u>B</u>					_
•				<u>S</u> Individuals					
Imr.mtw	***			Moving Range				_	. 🗆 🗙
	C1	C2	C3	E <u>W</u> MA	C6	C7	C8	C9	
↓ ↓	Shaft_OD	runout		Moving Average					
1	0.249500	3		CUSU <u>M</u>					
2	0.250000	4		Z <u>o</u> ne					
3	0.250500	4		<u>P</u>					
4	0.250000	0		<u>N</u> P					
5	0.250500	-4		<u>C</u> <u>U</u>					
6	0.250000	4							
7	0.250500	4							
8	0.250500	2							╧
•									
Draw a contro	ol chart for observ	vations and a mo	ving range cl	hart					

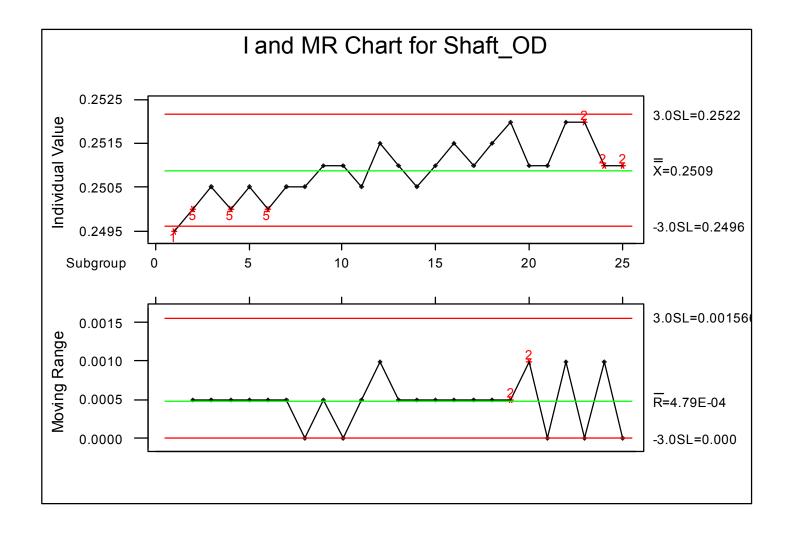
Input: Individuals & Moving Range Chart

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1. Double click on "Shaft_OD."	2. Click "Tests."					
I-MR Chart	Variable: ('Shaft_OD') Iests Estimate					
	Historical mean: (optional) <u>Stamp</u> Historical sigma: (optional) <u>Op</u> tions					
Select Help	<u>O</u> K Estimate Parameters B <u>Y</u> Groups in Cancel					









Exercise: Individuals & Moving Range Chart

- The data for 24 consecutive measurements of runout on a machined diameter are contained in Minitab File: Imr.mtw, column runout. The data are recorded as plus or minus from zero in whole numbers representing .001".
 - Using Minitab, create an I-MR chart.
 - What are your observations?
 - What action, if any, should be taken?



Cluster or periodic measurements of characteristic

(H)

- Frequency depends on line speed and stability
- Subgroup averages plotted on X-bar chart
- X-bar chart monitors central tendency of a process over time
- Subgroup ranges plotted on Range chart
- R chart monitors the variability of a process over time
- Provides data-smoothing effect



Individuals & Moving Range Chart

- Useful in low volume, intermittent processes
- Range value artificially constructed from successive readings
- Subgroup size (n) usually 2
- Some correlation between charts is possible
- Less damping, more "noise" in chart tougher to spot true process shift
- Displays the variability between individual observations over time
- Assumes that past and present data is equally important



A Valid Variable Control Chart Has...

- Data in time or production sequence
 to show stability, time-to-time variation
- A measure of central tendency
 - to portray behavior of process center
- A measure of variability
- Control limits
 - to allow separating common cause from assignable cause

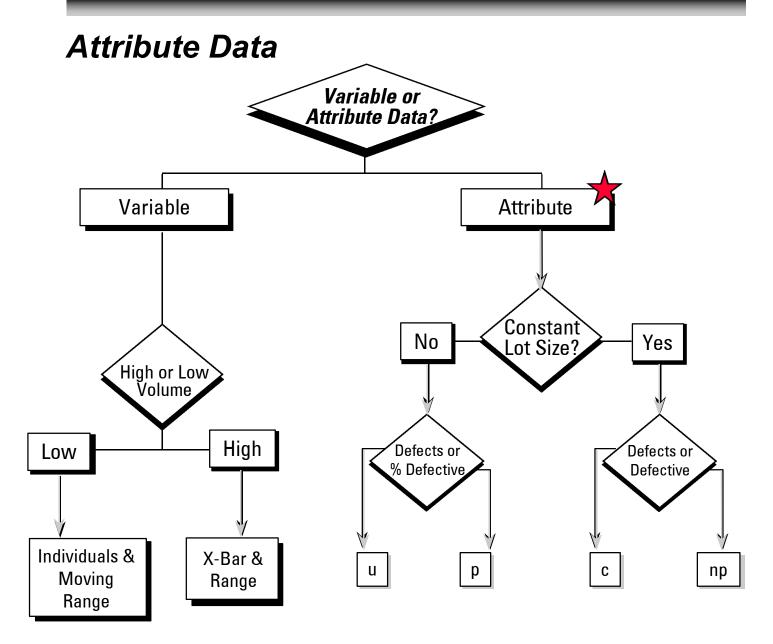
Attribute Control Charts

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Selecting the Appropriate Control Chart

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Attribute Control Charts

- Useful when characteristic measurements are not available
- Based on counting/classifying (Go/No Go, Pass/Fail, Good/Bad)
- Based on Poisson or Binomial Distribution statistics
- Control limits calculated differently from variable control limits, but interpreted in similar fashion
- One chart can cover any number of characteristics, but can be more difficult to analyze signals
- One chart instead of two—no range chart

Precise operational definitions of a defect are important. Operational definitions can then be uniformly and unambiguously applied by all inspectors.



Important Definitions

A Defect

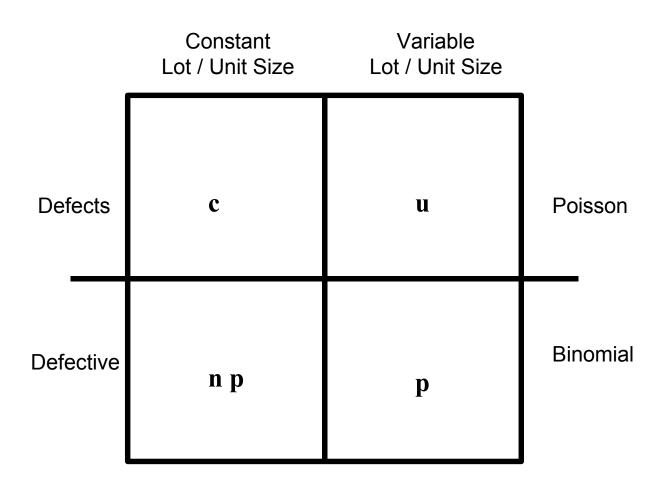
A single characteristic that does not meet requirements

A Defective

A unit that contains one or more DEFECTS

Attribute Charts Can Consider Either Case Depending On The Chart Type Chosen

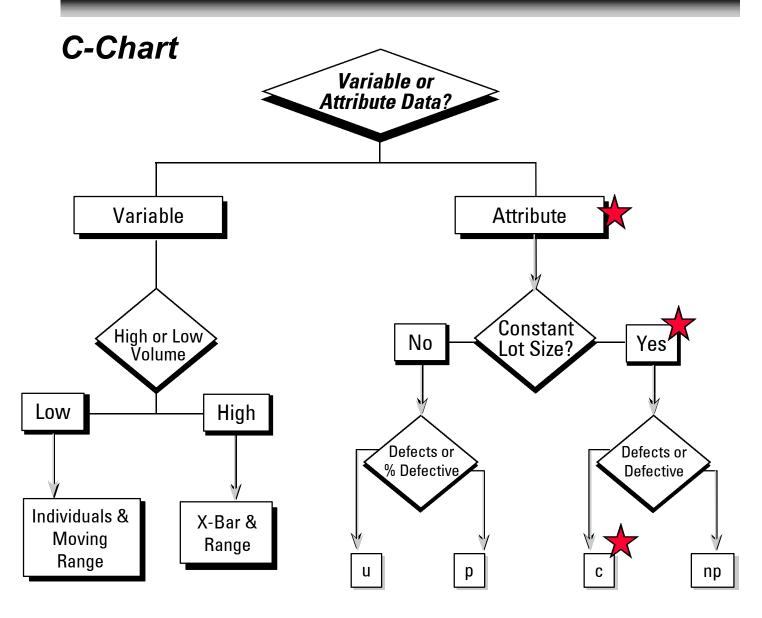
Classification of Attribute Chart Types



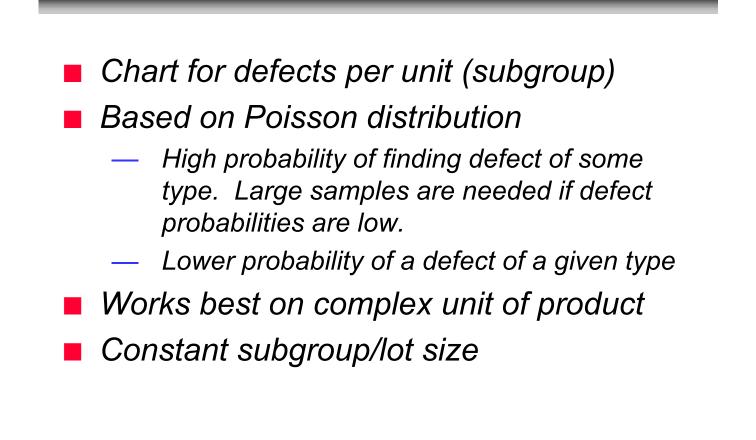
98)

Selecting the Appropriate Control Chart

98)



C-Chart



 $\overline{C} = \frac{\text{Total number of defects}}{\text{Total number of units or}}$

$$UCL = \overline{C} + 3 \sqrt{\overline{C}}$$

$$LCL = \overline{C} - 3 \sqrt{\overline{C}}$$



C-Chart Example

Attribute Data

- Manufacturing data indicates that a significant loss occurs from welding nonconformances on part A detected at NDT. The data on the number and general type of nonconformity for each part tested is maintained by serial number in the NDT log books.
- To determine the current performance of the welding process we will plot the number of nonconformities <u>per subgroup of two</u> <u>parts</u> on a C-Chart using the data from the log book:

Date	6/1	6/2	6/3	6/4	6/5	6/8	6/9
Number of	4	2	5	6	10	5	6
Nonconf.		3	2	8	5	7	6
per		7	4	9	9		
Subgroup			7	5	7		
				4	5		
				6	6		
Example Pa	art I.				7		

- The file C_chart, column weld_I, contains the data given above.
- 1. Using Minitab, create a C-Chart.
- 2. Is the high level of nonconformance we are experiencing due to an assignable cause or random variation?
- 3. What are some actions for consideration to reduce the level of nonconformances generated by this process?
- 4. What is the Process Capability?

C-Chart Example - Part I

MINITAB FILE: C_chart.mtw

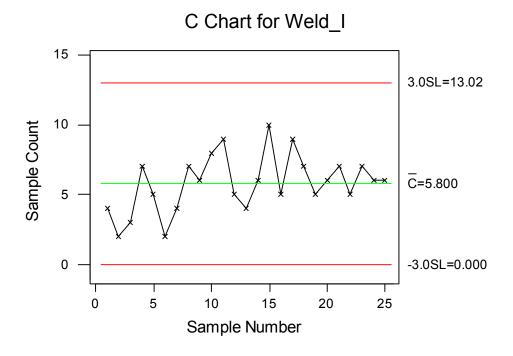
%

MINITAB	- Untitled							I	_ 8 ×		
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Session	<u>} X</u> R	Basic Statistics Regression ANOVA		⁄ ≱∡ ⊑ ፪≣			_	-			
Worksheet size: Retrieving work Worksheet was s Worksheet was s Quality Tools Multivariate Time Series Iables Nonparametrics EDA Power and Sample Size				Define <u>I</u> ests Box-Cox Transformation Xbar-R IMR I-MR-R (B <u>e</u> tween/W/ithin) Z-MR							
_			∑bar B S In <u>d</u> ividuals					۲ ۱			
E_Cnart.	C1	(2	-	Moving Range	C6	C7	C8	- (9			
Ļ	Weld_I	Weld_II	Contract:	E <u>W</u> MA Moving A <u>v</u> erage					+		
1	4	- 6	15	CUSU <u>M</u>					+		
2	2	7	1!	Z <u>o</u> ne							
3	3	1	1:	<u>P</u>							
4	7	5	2.	<u>N</u> P							
5	5	4	11	<u> </u>							
6	2	5	16-								
7	4	1	16								
1	7	3	76			 	 	 			
Draw a control	I chart for the nu	mber of defects									



C-Chart Example - Input

C Chart				×
	<u>V</u> ariable:	'Weld_I'		<u>T</u> ests
				<u>E</u> stimate
				S L <u>i</u> mits
				<u>S</u> tamp
-23				O <u>p</u> tions
	<u>H</u> istorical mu:		(optional)	_
				Annotation 💌
				<u>F</u> rame v
				<u>R</u> egions –
Select				<u>0</u> K
Неір	Estimate Pa	rameters B <u>Y</u> Grou	ps in	Cancel



Characteristic	Defs	Units	Opps	TotOpps	DPU	DPO	PPM	ZShift	ZBench
1	4	2	20	40	2.000	0.100000	100000	1.500	2.782
2	2	2	20	40	1.000	0.050000	50000	1.500	3.145
3	3	2	20	40	1.500	0.075000	75000	1.500	2.940
4	7	2	20	40	3.500	0.175000	175000	1.500	2.435
5	5	2	20	40	2.500	0.125000	125000	1.500	2.650
6	2	2	20	40	1.000	0.050000	50000	1.500	3.145
7	4	2	20	40	2.000	0.100000	100000	1.500	2.782
8	7	2	20	40	3.500	0.175000	175000	1.500	2.435
9	6	2	20	40	3.000	0.150000	150000	1.500	2.536
10	8	2	20	40	4.000	0.200000	200000	1.500	2.342
11	9	2	20	40	4.500	0.225000	225000	1.500	2.255
12	5	2	20	40	2.500	0.125000	125000	1.500	2.650
13	4	2	20	40	2.000	0.100000	100000	1.500	2.782
14	6	2	20	40	3.000	0.150000	150000	1.500	2.536
15	10	2	20	40	5.000	0.250000	250000	1.500	2.174
16	5	2	20	40	2.500	0.125000	125000	1.500	2.650
17	9	2	20	40	4.500	0.225000	225000	1.500	2.255
18	7	2	20	40	3.500	0.175000	175000	1.500	2.435
19	5	2	20	40	2.500	0.125000	125000	1.500	2.650
20	6	2	20	40	3.000	0.150000	150000	1.500	2.536
21	7	2	20	40	3.500	0.175000	175000	1.500	2.435
22	5	2	20	40	2.500	0.125000	125000	1.500	2.650
23	7	2	20	40	3.500	0.175000	175000	1.500	2.435
24	6	2	20	40	3.000	0.150000	150000	1.500	2.536
25	6	2	20	40	3.000	0.150000	150000	1.500	2.536
Total	145			1000		0.145000	145000	1.500	2.558

Report 7: Product Performance

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Roll up Zbench = 2.558 DPMO = 145,000 Process is: • in Control • not very Capable

(H)

C-Chart Example - Part II

We will assume for the purpose of our exercise that investigation reveals that improved welder training could substantially reduce the random variation in our stable process. A training program is developed and implemented, but how can we determine if the action we have taken has actually reduced the random variation in the process? Let's gather data from the revised process and construct another C-Chart, again using the <u>constant subgroup size</u> <u>of two parts.</u> If the new process is in control, we can compare the control limits with the earlier chart and determine the impact of our training. Also, if no assignable causes are evident, we can begin to make an estimate of process capability for the new process.

The data from the new process:

Date	7/1	7/2	7/3	7/4	7/5	7/8
Nonconformances	s 6	1	5	6	2	6
per subgroup	7	5	1	2	5	6
		4	3	3	4	2
			3	3	5	
			2	4	3	
					5	
					6	

The new data is in file C_chart.mtw, column weld_II.

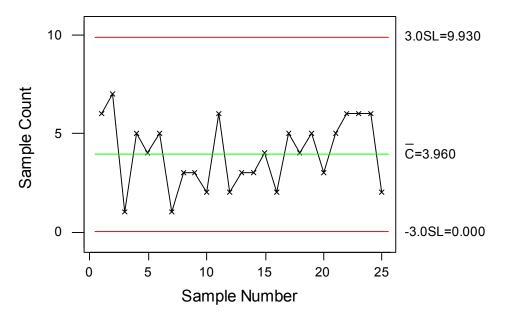
- 1. Using Minitab, create the C-Chart.
- 2. Is the new process in control?
- 3. Has the training improved the process?
- 4. Can we make an estimate of process capability?
- 5. How would you state the process capability of the process?



C-Chart Example - Part II (cont.)

MINITAB FILE: C_chart.mtw

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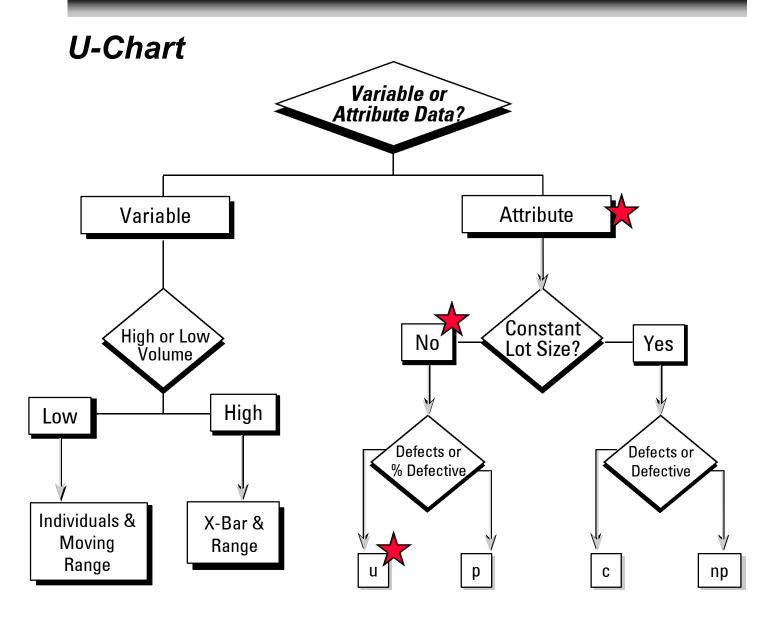


C-Chart Exercise

- File C_chart.mtw contains time order data for Power Plants contracts.
- Using Minitab, create a C-Chart of the data.
- What are your observations?

Selecting the Appropriate Control Chart

96)





U-Chart

- U-Chart defects per unit, variable lot (subgroup) size
- Same logic as C-Chart, except variable lot (subgroup) size (n)

 $\overline{u} = \frac{\text{total number of defects}}{\text{total number of units}}$

UCL =
$$\overline{u} + 3\sqrt{\frac{\overline{u}}{n}}$$

$$LCL = \overline{u} - 3\sqrt{\frac{\overline{u}}{n}}$$

U-Chart Example

In file U_chart.mtw, column "errors" contains time order data of customer parts order defects found each day. A defect is defined to be inaccurate information found on a parts order requisition. Both the number of defects and the daily number of orders are recorded.

GE)

- Using Minitab, construct a U-Chart of the data.
- Using the Six Sigma Product Report obtain the Process Capability data for this parts ordering operation.
- What are your observations?

U-Chart Example Minitab Menu Commands

MINITAB FILE: U_Chart.mtw

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4	257	95	1:	<u>N</u> P						+
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6	228	95		<u>U</u>	29					
7	327	95	4	50	25					
8	269	95	11	50	25					
		mber of defects (



U-Chart Minitab Input & Output

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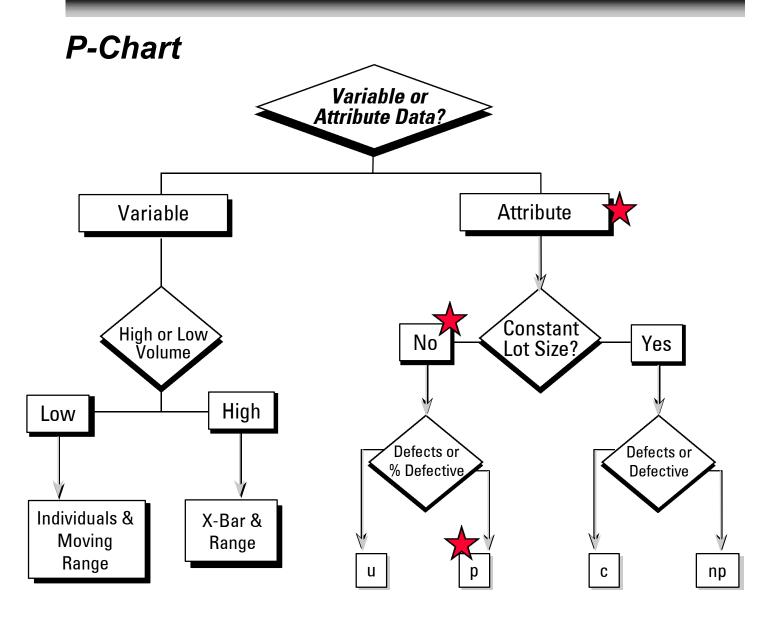


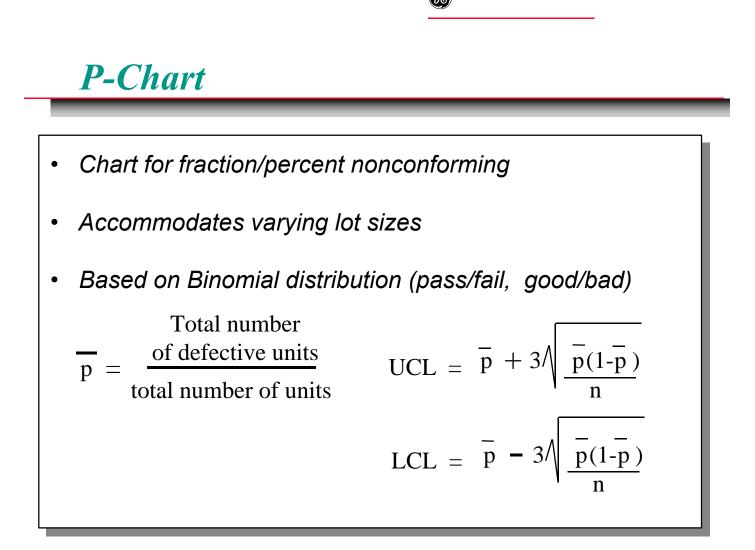
U-Chart Exercise

- Two portions of an automobile radiator are assembled together. The number of leaks detected along with the number of assembled radiators were recorded.
- The file U_chart.mtw contains the data.
- Using Minitab, construct a U-Chart of the data. Also estimate the Process Capability.
- What are your observations?

Selecting the Appropriate Control Chart

96)





P-Chart Example

In file P_chart.mtw, column "voids" contains data for number of parts containing coating voids found at inspection after a coating operation.

Using Minitab, create a P-Chart of the data.

What are your observations? What is needed to estimate the Process Capability?

Implement Process Control

Commands

MINITAB FILE: P_chart.mtw

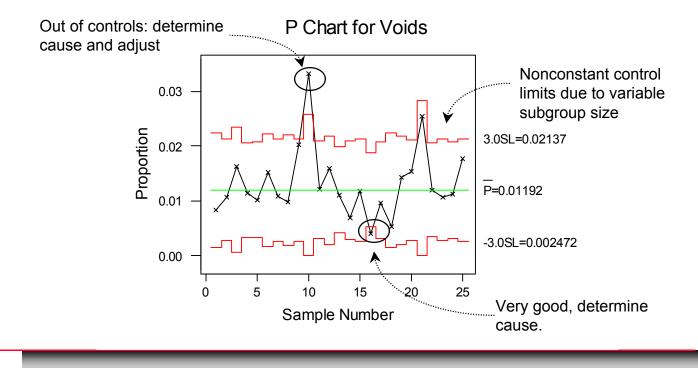
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P-Chart Minitab Input & Output

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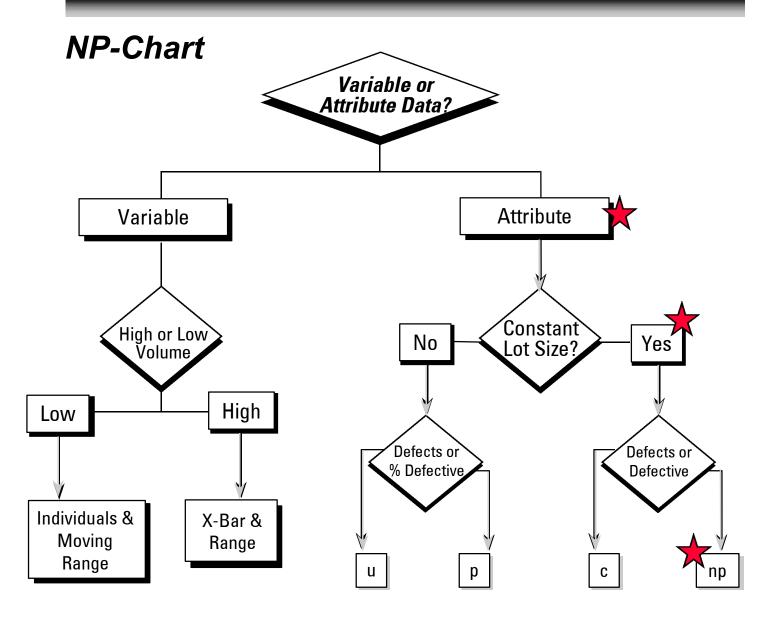


P-Chart Exercise

- Customer invoices are checked for entry errors such as a bad P.O. number, a bad price entry, etc. The number of bad customer invoices per month along with the total number of invoices for that month has been recorded for the last 13 months.
- File P_chart.mtw contains the data.
- Using Minitab, construct a P-Chart of the data.
- What are your observations?
- What is needed to estimate Process Capability? Discuss.

Selecting the Appropriate Control Chart

96)





- Np-chart: number non-conforming in subgroup
- Same logic as the p-chart, except constant lot size (n)

 $np = \frac{\text{total number of defective units}}{\text{total number of subgroups of n units}}$

GE)

UCL =
$$np + 3\sqrt{np(1 - p)}$$

$$LCL = np - 3\sqrt{np(1 - p)}$$

NP-Chart Example

In file Np_chart.mtw, column "switches" contains inspection data from 25 consecutive lots of electrical switches.

GE)

- The lot size is constant at 100 switches per lot.
- Using Minitab, create an Np-Chart of the data.
- What are your observations?
- What is the Process Capability? What do you need to know to answer this?

NP-Chart Example Minitab Menu Commands

MINITAB FILE: Np_chart.mtw

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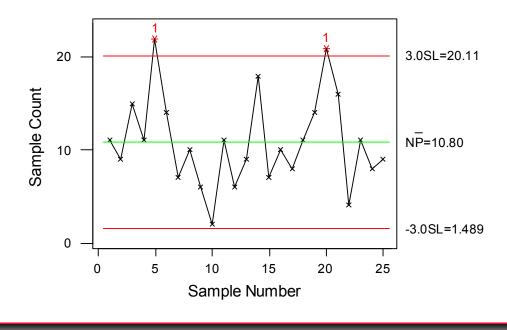
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6	14	18	-							
7	7	16								
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Draw a contro	l chart for the nu	umber of defective	s							



NP-Chart Minitab Input & Output

NP Chart			×
	<u>V</u> ariable:	switches	<u>T</u> ests
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Select			<u>0</u> K
Help	Estimate Param	eters BY Groups in	Cancel

NP Chart for switches





NP-Chart Exercise

- The clinic surveyed 60 patients per day. They were asked to rate the quality of care they received on a 1-5 scale, five being the best and one being the worst.
- The number of patients who rated their experience as 3 or lower was recorded for each day. These patients were considered unsatisfied. The data is in file Np_chart.mtw, column "unsatisfied."
- Make a NP-Chart of the data using Minitab.
- Run a Six-Sigma Product Report.
- What are your observations?

Attribute Chart Subgroup Size

Rule of Thumb:

 Select a Subgroup Size that will Provide an Average Defect/Defective Count of Approximately

GE)

 \overline{C} , \overline{U} , $N\overline{P}$ > 5.0

To Make UCL & LCL Nearly Symmetrical Around the Mean

 For P-charts, to select the appropriate sample size such that 95% of the subgroups will have at least one defective, use the relationship

$$n = \frac{3}{p}$$

Summary of Attribute Charts

- Useful when variable data not available
- Use count/classification data—pass/fail, good/bad

(H)

- Same general rules for interpretation as variable charts
- Useful as end-to-end overview; use variable charts for further study of problems
- Can use data gathered for other purposes
- Generally less expensive to administer, but tell you less

<u>Shortcomings</u>

- Including too many variables makes interpretation difficult
- Must fit the parameters you are evaluating to theoretical distribution [Poisson (C, U-Charts), Binomial (P, NP-Charts)]
- Need to evaluate whether constant/non-constant lot size will help you with root cause analysis
- Sensitivity is dependent on magnitude of defect level



Implementing Attribute Charting (SPC):

<u>**Applications</u>**—document & drive improvement in processes and products where:</u>

- measurement (variable data) is not easy, economic, or possible
- counting (good/bad, OK/NG = attribute data) from "grading/sorting," is easy and more economical
- each unit is considered "unique"—few units are similar
- data rates are slow—long periods between samples (attribute charting is also applicable in fast data rate cases)

<u>Examples</u> = non-conformities in:

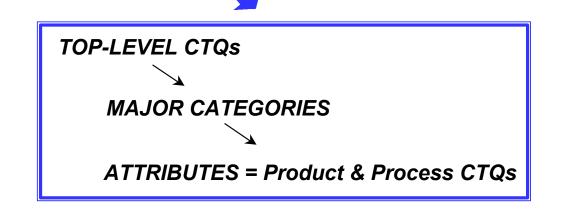
- fabrications, bases, skids, etc. (medium to large "structures")
- complex assembly
- proposal, contract preparation
- sales development, ITO actions/activities/processes
- design/build items
- transactional quality, OTR actions/activities/processes
- order processing, bill paying
- field service, repair, up-grade contract execution
- etc.



Attribute Matrix & SPC Charting— Implementation

<u>Step 1:</u> Identify top level criteria = customer/ functional/performance/output driven = High Level CTQs. [CTQ = Critical to Quality Characteristic]

<u>Step 2:</u> Perform criteria decomposition



- <u>Step 3:</u> Set up Attribute Matrix—include estimated "Opportunity for Non-Conformity" ... <u>and</u> estimated **Rework Cost \$**, or **Rework Hours**, per Nonconformity.
- <u>Step 4:</u> Data Gathering
- <u>Step 5:</u> Chart and Analysis—see Examples

Attribute Matrix drives Control Chart



Steps & Link to Six Sigma Tools

<u>Step</u>

Identify top level criteria (CTQs)
 2: Perform criteria decomposition
 3: Set up Attribute Matrix
 4: Data Gathering
 5: Chart and Analysis

Link:

Steps 1 & 2 = Quality Function Deployment (QFD), House of Quality

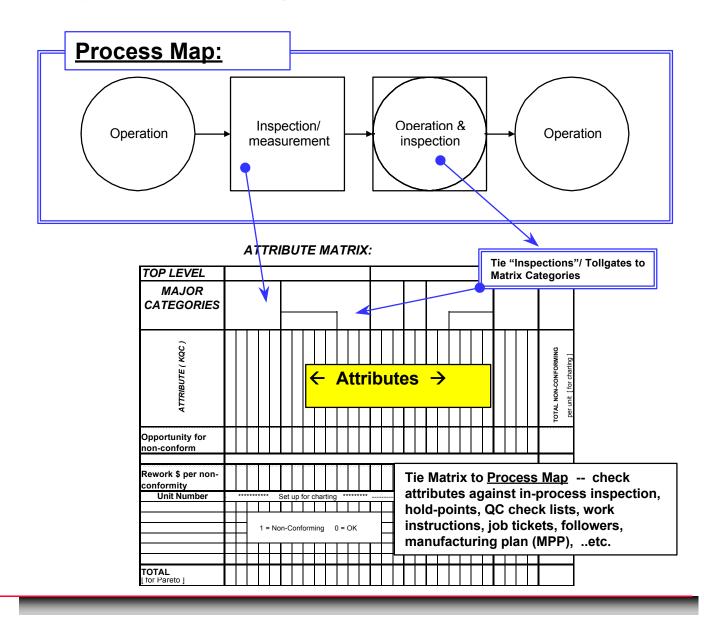
Step 3 = Design-for-Manufacturability, Design for Six Sigma (DFSS)—of product and/or process

Steps 4 & 5 = Control: Statistical Process Control (SPC/SQC), Control Charts and Capability Reporting



Attribute Matrix "Structure"

TOP LEVEL: PERFORMANCE, FUNCTIONAL, STRUCTURAL, SAFETY, INSTALLATION, MAINTAINABILITY, APPEARANCE, ECONOMIC, PACKAGING, etc. [Each Top Level criteria can be a separate matrix and chart application <u>for a particular production area</u>: Welding, Paint Shop, Fit-Up, Final Assembly, etc.]





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Example 1: Fabrication Shop — Attribute Matrix Structure

MAJOR CATEGORIES: PERFORMANCE

- Cubic foot per minute (CFM)
- Gallons per Hour (GPH) = Flow rate
- *PSI*
- Start torque
- Temperature
- etc.

STRUCTURAL

- Materials specs
- Weld quality
- Connection points
- Foundation points
- Pass-throughs
- Hardware specs
- etc.

APPEARANCE/ PRESERVATION:

- Surface prep
- *Paint quality* = *prep* & *application*
- Coating—Dry Film Thickness (DFT)
- Visual inspection
- Documentation
- etc.

<u>Criteria Decomposition</u> may be applied to any business or production process—Transactional and/or Product Quality (CQ example = ITO Proposal Preparation)

The Matrix

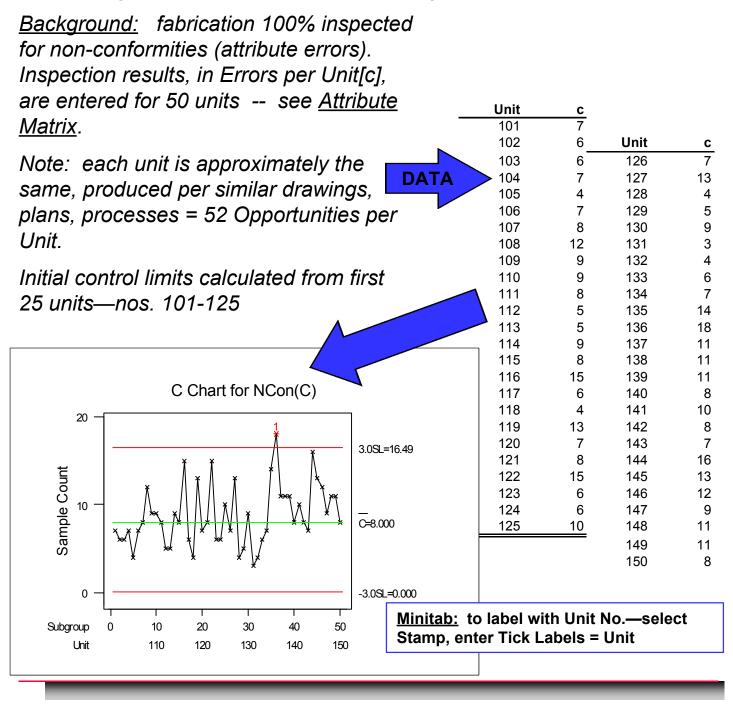
Example 1: Fabrication Shop—the Matrix

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UNIT NO.	Surface preparation specification	Coating application specification	Manufacturer's latest printed product data sheets (MSDS) & applic. instructions.	Latest revision all drawings	Weld splatter	Weld flux	Sharp corners	Laminations	Rough welds	Skip welds sealed or caulked, type of caulk	Compressed air dry and clean	Conditions suitable for abrasive blasting	Oil, grease, dirt, salt and contaminant free	Anchor pattern as specified, Testex Pr-O-Film	All dust and debris removed	Surface as called for in spec SP6, SP10, etc.	Coatings are those specified	Coatings correctly mixed and agitated	Coatings thinned correctly	Coatings have not exceeded pot life	Batch No recorded	Storage and shelf life not exceeded	Ambient conditions OK for painting	Clean, dry surface	Correct DFT	runs	dry spray	voids, holidays, ghosts	other & miscell.	Brush over welds, corners, edges(dbl. cover)	Difficult to reach areas coated sufficiently	Defects properly marked and repaired	Blast profile with tape	DFT each coat and final DFT	Wet bulb temperature	Dry bulb temperature	Relative humidity	Dew point	Metal surface temperature	Smooth, no dryspray, runs	Complete coverage	DFT as specified	Other	TOTAL NON-COMFORMANCES per unit	[for charting]
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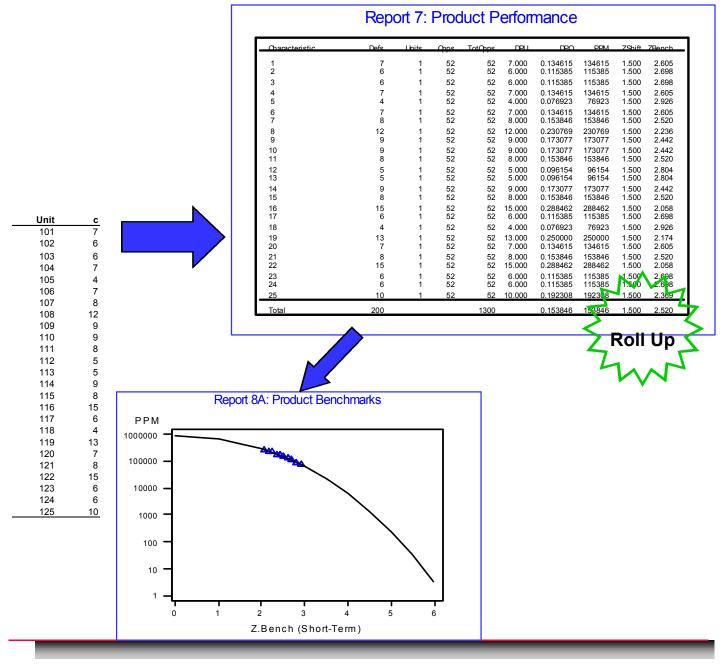
Fab Shop

Example 1: Fabrication Shop—continued



Fab Shop

Example 1: Fabrication Shop—continued Control data drives Capability Reporting

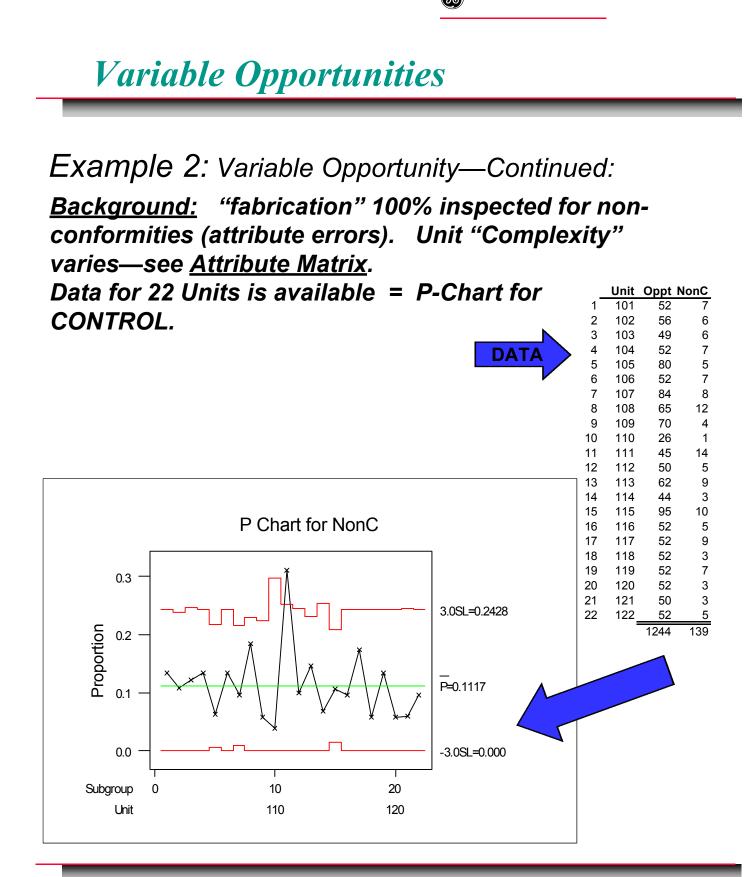


Variable Opportunities

Example 2: Units with <u>Variable</u> Opportunities—Matrix:

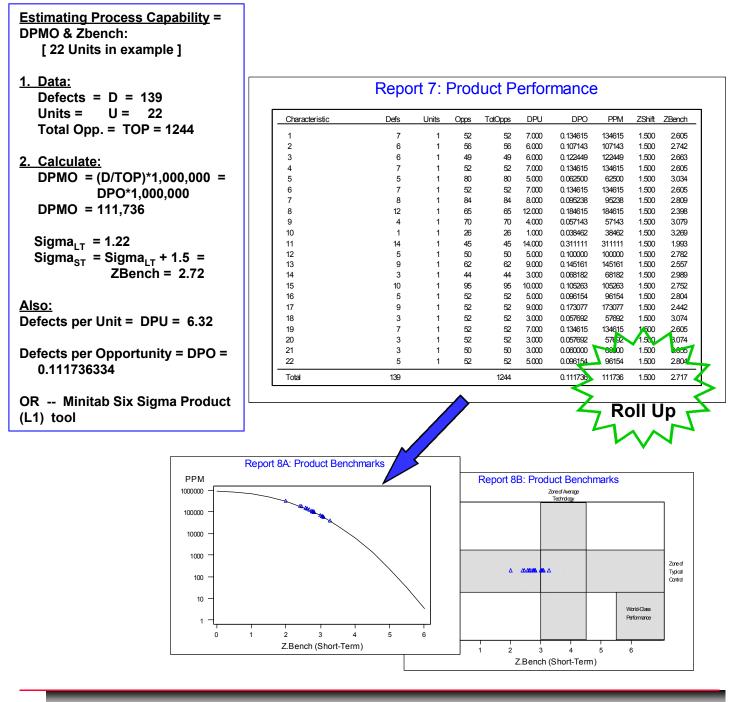
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UNIT NO.	Surface preparation specification	Coating application specification	Manufacturer's latest printed product	data sheets (MSDS) & applic. instructions.	Latest revision all drawings	Weld splatter	Weld flux	Sharp corners	Laminations	Rough welds	Skip welds sealed or caulked, type of caulk	Compressed air dry and clean	Conditions suitable for abrasive blasting	Oil, grease, dirt, salt and contaminant free	Anchor pattern as specified, Testex Pr-O-Film	All dust and debris removed	Surface as called for in spec SP6, SP10, etc.	Coatings are those specified	Coatings correctly mixed and agitated	Coatings thinned correctly	Coatings have not exceeded pot life	Batch No recorded	Storage and shelf life not exceeded	Ambient conditions OK for painting	Clean, dry surface	Correct DFT	runs	dry spray	voids, holidays, ghosts	other & miscell.	Brush over welds, comers, edges(dbl. cover)	Difficult to reach areas coated sufficiently	Defects properly marked and repaired	Blast profile with tape	DFT each coat and final DFT	Wet bulb temperature	Dry bulb temperature	Relative humidity	Dew point	Metal surface temperature	Smooth, no dryspray, runs	Complete coverage	DFT as specified	Other	TOTAL NON-COMFORMANCES per unit	[for charting]
Opportunity for non-conform				Var	ies j	from	n un	it to	uni	t															Va	ries	fron	n uni	t to	unit					Var	ies j	from	uni	t to	unit		_				
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101			1							1										1					1	1						1												2	7	0.13
Opp. for NC	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	56	
102			1			1				1																1								1										1	6	0.11
Opp. for NC	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	49	
103			1			1				3																				1															6	0.12
Opp. for NC	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	52	0.46
104			1																						1	1					_	_			2					╘	╞		2		7	0.13
Opp. for NC 105	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	36	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	80	0.06
			1	_	_		-		-	-		_	1									-				-			-	_		_	_			-				F	F			3	5	0.06
Opp. for NC 106	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	11	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	<u> </u>	\vdash	1	2	1	52 7	0.13
Opp. for NC	1	1	1	_	1	1	1	1	1	40	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2		84	-
107	-	+	1	_	-	L'	+ ·	Ľ	⊢	40	Ľ	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	⊢	1	⊢	+	⊢	Ľ	1	1	+	⊢	L.	-	'	-	-	+	2 1	-	-	+	<u> </u>	⊢	⊢	+	1		8	0.10
Opp. for NC	1	1	1	-	1	1	1	1	1	21	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	65	Ħ
108	<u> </u>	† i	1			† ·	† ·	†	† i	6			1	L.	<u> </u>	Γ.	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	1	ŕ	†	† i	† ·	Ľ		t	t	† ·						<u> </u>	1	-	-	† ·	1	†	t	t	Ē	1	12	0.18
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TOTAL [for Pareto]	3. Reset UCL, Centerline, & LCL as improvement is reflected in data. 4. Set DPU, DPO, and DPMO values based on data - L1 analysis. 0 0 8 0 3 0 0 0 0 1 2 0 0 0 2 4 0 0 0 1 5 0 0 0 0 3 8										490 58	0.12																																		



Example 2

Example 2: Capability



Example 3

Example 3: "Rework Cost" charting = \$\$

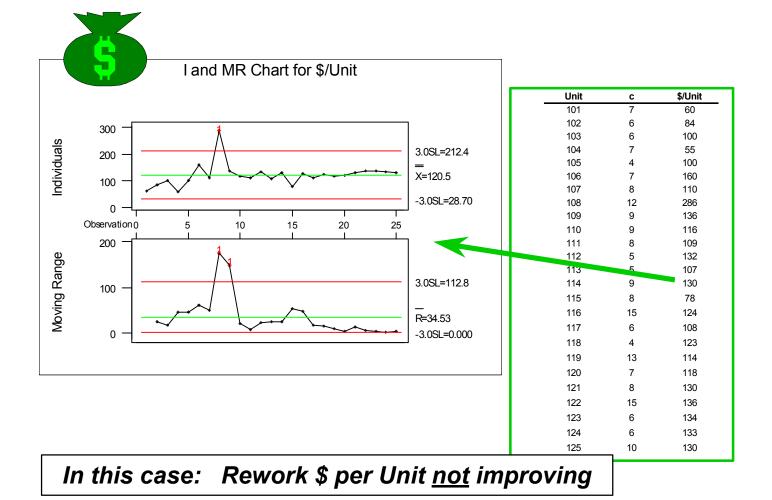
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			ace de actd/re														No	laws							
	Weld splatter	Weld flux	Sharp corners	aminations	Rough welds	Skip welds sealed or caulked, type of caulk	Compressed air dry and clean	Conditions suitable for abrasive blasting	Oil, grease, dirt, salt and contaminant free	Anchor pattern as specified, Testex Pr-O-Film	All dust and debris removed	Surface as called for in spec SP6, SP10, etc.	Ambient conditions OK for painting	Clean, dry surface	Correct DFT	runs	dry spray	voids, holidays, ghosts	other & miscell.	Brush over welds, corners, edges(dbl. cover)	Difficult to reach areas coated sufficiently	Defects properly marked and repaired	TOTAL NON-COMFORMANCES per unit	[for charting]	REWORK COST per unit (\$\$)
Rework Cost(\$)	4	2	20	10	30	5	10	100	25	8	30	4	15	5	50	5	5	8	6	10	25	6			
Opportunity for on-conform	1	1	1	1	8	1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	29		\$ Rewo per Un
101	•	•	· ·	•	1		<u> </u>		•	L .	•	•	· ·	1	•		· ·		· ·	•	1	•	3	-	60
102	1				1										1								3		84
103	1	_			_					_						_			1				5		100
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100																							0		200

Example 3

Example 3: "Rework Cost" Chart use Control Charts of Rework \$\$

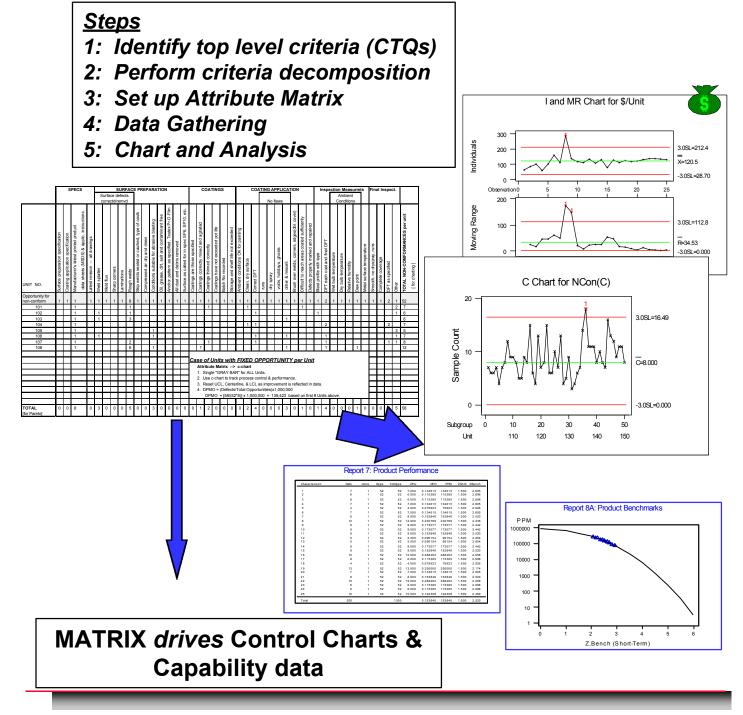
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Summary

Attribute Matrix & Control Charts:

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Process Focused Control Charts



To apply the theory of control charting to several parts within the same process.

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- To plot the deviation from nominal/target for each part on the same control chart for easy monitoring of the process.
- To monitor variation within a process by examining several characteristics of many parts (I & MR Chart).

Why Use Process Focused Control Charts?

(H)



- ✓ Uses Measured Values
 - Cycle Time, Lengths, Diameters, Drops, etc.
- ✓ Generally One Characteristic Per Chart
- More Expensive, But More Information



- ✓ Pass/Fail, Good/Bad, Go/No-Go Information
- Can Be Many
 Characteristics Per Chart
- Less Expensive, But Less Information



- Monitors Several Parts
 From Same Process
- Measures Deviation
 From Nominal/Target
- Typically an I & MR
 Chart Monitoring
 Several Characteristics
 of Several Parts

Process Focused: Steps 1 & 2

1. Define the process (general is better than specific)

(H)

- 2. Identify the parameters that measure performance
- 3. Gather data in production sequence
- 4. Record variables data as a deviation from nominal/target
- 5. Analyze for patterns

Note: A process is one set of the 6Ms



Processes to Monitor

Process	Parameter
Welding	% Penetration Voids per foot
Turning	Diameter, Runout
Milling	Flatness
Grinding	Dimension, Finish
Stamping	Dimension, Burrs
Banking	Posting Errors
Typing	Errors per Page
Drafting	Errors/100 Drawings issued on time



Process Focused: Step 3

- 1. Define the process (general is better than specific)
- 2. Identify the parameters that measure performance
- 3. Gather data in production sequence
- 4. Record variables data as a deviation from nominal/target
- 5. Analyze for patterns

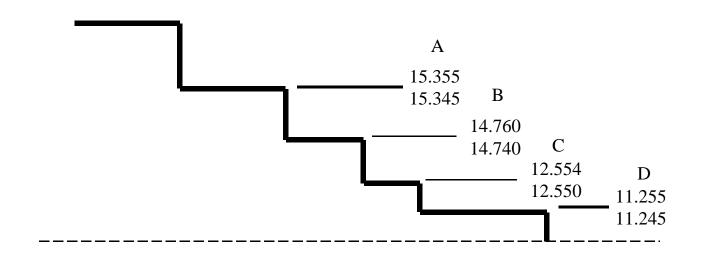


Process Focused: Step 4

- 1. Define the process (general is better than specific)
- 2. Identify the parameters that measure performance
- 3. Gather data in production sequence
- 4. Record variables data as a deviation from nominal/target
- 5. Analyze for patterns



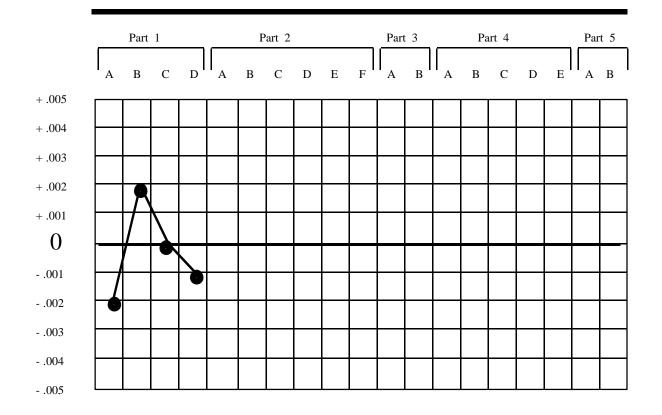
Deviation from Nominal



Dimension	A	В	С	D
NOMINAL	15.350	14.750	12.552	11.250
ACTUAL	15.348	14.752	12.552	11.249
VAR. FROM NOM.	002	+ .002	0	001

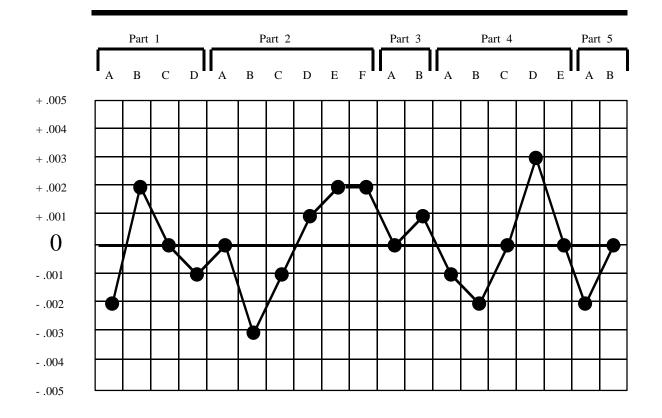


Deviation from Nominal





Deviation from Nominal





Control Chart Calculations

I & MR Chart

- I Chart: Plots the individual values of deviation from nominal over time
- MR Chart: Plots the moving range (typically | X_i - X_{i-1}|) over time

Time - to - Time: (X)

$$UCL = \overline{X} + E_2 \overline{R}$$

$$LCL = \overline{X} - E_2 \overline{R}$$

$$E_2 = 2.660$$

$$n = 2$$

$$n = 2$$

$$CL = \overline{X} - E_2 \overline{R}$$

$$D_4 = 3.267$$

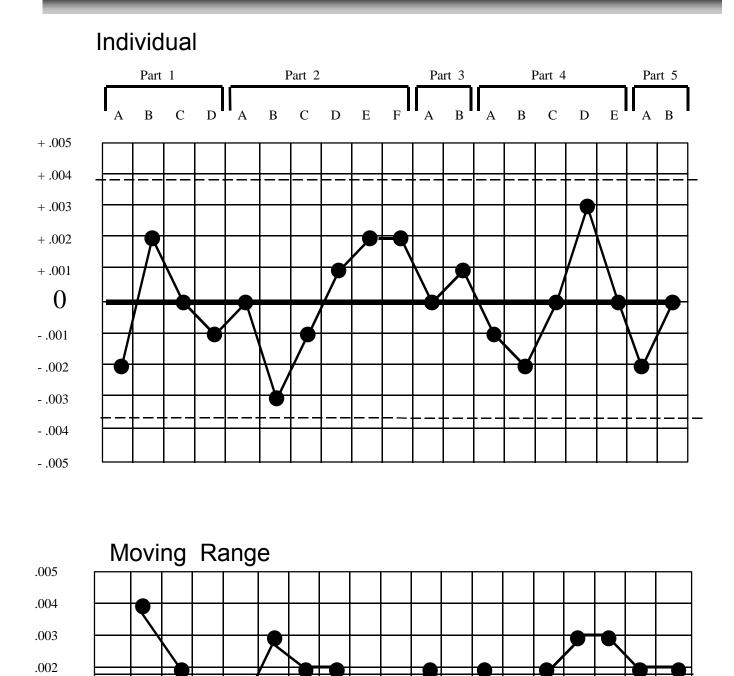
$$LCL = D_3 \overline{R}$$

$$D_4 = 3.267$$

Individual & Moving Range Charts

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- 1. Define the process (general is better than specific)
- 2. Identify the parameters that measure performance
- 3. Gather data in production sequence
- 4. Record variable data as a deviation from nominal/target

5. Analyze for patterns

Processed Focused Control Chart Example

(H)

The data below represents one week's output of an NC lathe, and consists of measurements taken by the operators in the sequence in which they were machined. In each case, the operator was instructed to come as close to nominal as he could before recording the final dimension. The data is in file Low_vol.mtw. Use Minitab to construct a "variation from nominal" chart.

What is your analysis of the control chart? What do you suppose was happening between Dimension E on Part 2 and Dimension D on Part 4?

Part ID	Dimension	Nominal	Actual Variation
1	А	13.570	13.567
1	В	12.012	12.008
1	С	22.125	22.124
1	D	20.652	20.652
2	A	6.878	6.881
2	В	6.275	6.278
2	С	2.175	2.179
2	D	2.005	2.004
2	E	1.750	1.745
3	А	16.846	16.843
3	В	14.116	14.113
4	A	25.125	25.124
4	В	24.000	24.000
4	С	27.375	27.377
4	D	26.625	26.630
4	E	21.174	21.175
5	А	4.375	4.378
5	В	4.125	4.122
5	С	3.890	3.890
6	А	27.445	27.442
6	В	26.565	26.562
6	С	24.188	24.189
6	D	21.010	21.010
6	E	18.750	18.753
6	F	16.915	16.917

Process Focused Control Chart Example

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MINITAB FILE: Low_vol.mtw

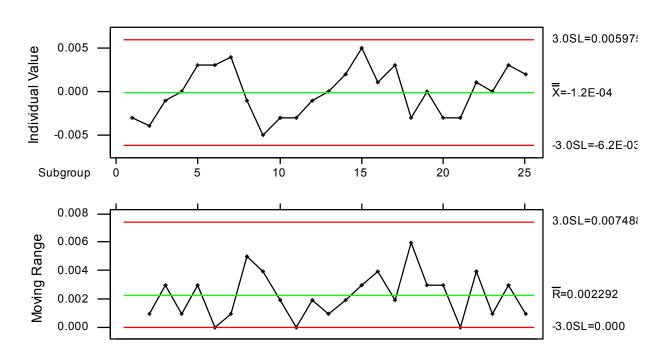
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E Session		<u>R</u> egression ANOVA								
		DOE								
	et size: ing work	Control Charts	•	Define <u>T</u> ests		1.mtw				
	et was s	<u>Q</u> uality Tools	۱.	Box-Cox Trans <u>f</u> or	mation	1.1.0				
		Reliability/Surv	rival 🕨 📕	Xbar-R						
		<u>M</u> ultivariate Time Series		Xb <u>a</u> r-S						
		Tables		Į-MR						
		<u>N</u> onparametric	s 🕨	I-MR-R (B <u>e</u> tween Z-MR	/Within)					
		<u>E</u> DA	•	-		-				
		Power and Sar	nple Size 🔸	⊻bar						
				<u>B</u> <u>S</u>						
				Individuals						<u> ///</u>
Eow_vol	.mtw ***			Moving Range						IX
	C1	C2	C3	E <u>W</u> MA		C6	C7	C8	C9	-
4	nominal	actual	var	Moving Average.		OD_act	OD_nom	OD_Var		
1	13.570	13.567	-0.00300	CUSU <u>M</u>		0.595000	0.597000	0.0020000		_
2	12.012	12.008	-0.0040	Z <u>o</u> ne		0.650000	0.649000	-0.0010000		
3	22.125	22.124	-0.0010	<u>P</u>		0.597000	0.597000	0.0000000		_
4	20.652	20.652	0.0000	<u>N</u> P		0.599000	0.597000	-0.0020000		
5	6.878	6.881	0.0030	<u>C</u> <u>U</u>		0.864000	0.865000	0.0010000		
6	6.275	6.278	0.003060	<u>u</u> U	U	0.865000	0.865000	0.0000000		
7	2.175	2.179	0.004000	0 2	С	0.648000	0.649000	0.0010000		
	2 005	2.004	-0.001000	n	n	0.649000	0.649000			
										<u>- ///</u>

Process Focused Control Chart Minitab Input and Output

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	I-MR Chart		×
		Variable:	<u>T</u> ests
			<u>E</u> stimate
		Historical <u>m</u> ean: (optiona	<u> </u>
1. Double Click on C3.		Historical sigma: (optional	l) O <u>p</u> tions
	Select		<u>0</u> K
2. OK.	Help	Estimate Parameters B <u>Y</u> Groups in	Cancel

I and MR Chart for var



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Parts Delivery Example

Customers routinely order parts to support seasonal outages. One key customer requirement is that parts be delivered on time (too early and the customer may not be ready, too late and the parts may hold up an outage). In general, orders have several parts and each part has its own distinct cycle time. Therefore, some orders may have multiple partial shipments as parts become available. We can monitor the overall delivery to want date with a process focused control chart which tracks the deviation from promised to actual delivery date for each part in each order.

What is your analysis of the control chart? What do you suppose happened to part A in Order 5?

Order	Part	Promised date	Actual Date	Deviation
1	А	06/25/98	07/02/98	7
1	В	06/25/98	06/30/98	5
1	С	06/25/98	06/27/98	2
2	А	06/24/98	06/27/98	3
2	В	06/24/98	06/22/98	-2
3	А	06/22/98	06/27/98	5
3	В	06/22/98	06/15/98	-7
3	С	06/22/98	06/25/98	3
3	D	06/22/98	06/21/98	-1
4	А	06/15/98	06/18/98	3
5	А	06/10/98	06/28/98	18
5	В	06/10/98	06/12/98	2
5	С	06/10/98	06/12/98	2
5	D	06/10/98	06/14/98	4
5	Е	06/10/98	06/15/98	5
6	А	06/05/98	06/08/98	3
6	В	06/05/98	06/09/98	4
7	А	06/02/98	06/01/98	-1
7	В	06/02/98	06/05/98	3
7	С	06/02/98	06/05/98	3

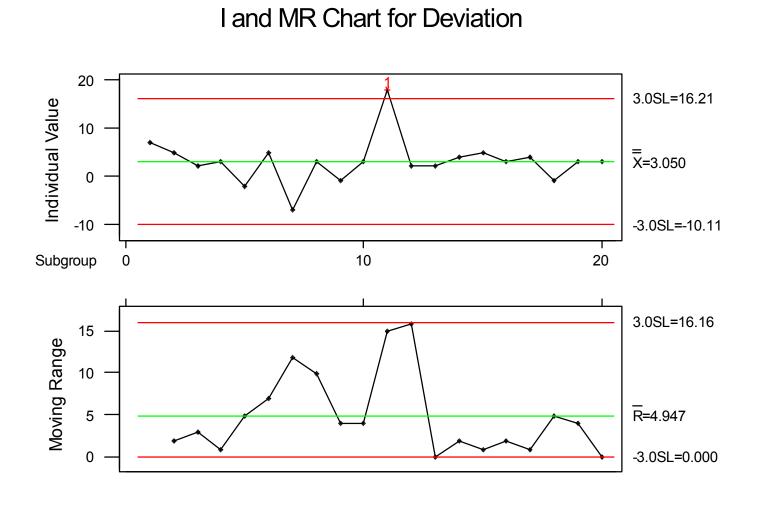
The data is contained in **MINITAB FILE: Del_time.mtw**



Use the same Minitab commands as on the previous pages to produce the I & MR chart for the **Minitab File: Del_time. mtw**

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Exercise Process Focused Control Charts

An NC Lathe is set up to turn an outer diameter on a family of outer rings for the CF6-80 engine. Three rings in the family have dimensions

Ring A	40.865 +/002
Ring B	38.649 +/002
Ring C	48.597 +/002.

- The rings are the same material, and differ only in size. Fixturing is universal, so that all three rings turn on the same fixture. Planning is identical except for dimensional callouts.
- The data is contained in Minitab File: Low_vol.mtw, columns "OD_act" and "OD_nom."
- 1. Use Minitab to construct a "low volume" chart.
- 2. Is the process in a state of statistical control? Why/Why Not?
- 3. Can you estimate process capability? If you think you can, use the Minitab capability macro. The tolerances are +/- .002.

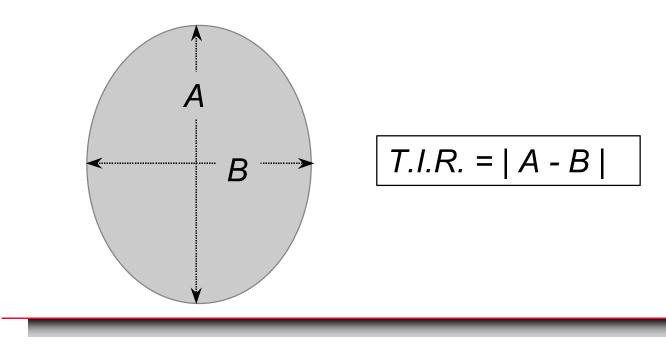
Summary of Process Focused Control Charts

- Allows merging data from multiple parts
- Not tied to one specific characteristic
- Adaptable to families of like parts
- Leads naturally to machine capability study
- Rapid multiplication of data points
- Conventional Control Chart interpretation
- Operator must aim for nominal and come as close as possible
- Should use same gage resolution
- Measurements should be same order of magnitude
- Double-check for normality before predicting process capability



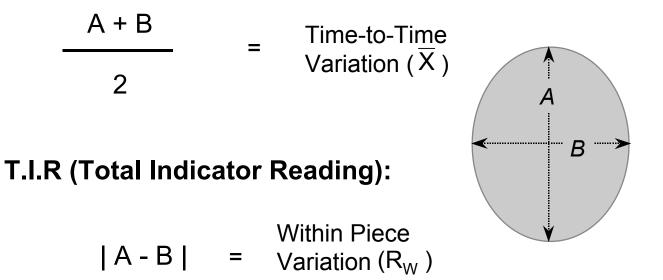
2-R Control Charts Example

- A journal diameter on a shaft has a requirement of 4.763/4.768, and T.I.R. = .003"
- Two equally spaced diametral readings, A and B, are used to evaluate for an outof-round condition (T.I.R.).
 - A denotes the maximum diametral reading
 - B denotes the minimum diametral reading
 - How do you analyze the data?

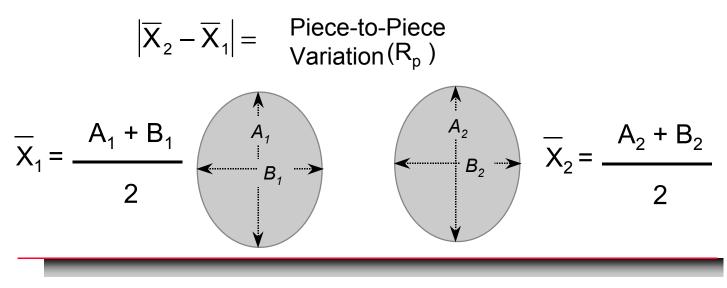




Average Diameter:



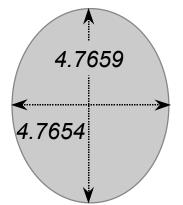
Variation Between Parts:



Calculations

		,		
Max: A	Min: B	\overline{X}	R_{p}	R_{w}
4.7665	4.7658	4.76615		.0007
4.7659	4.7654	4.76565	.00050	.0005
4.7667	4.7661	4.76640	.00075	.0006
4.7659	4.7655	4.76570	.00070	.0004
4.7668	4.7663	4.76655	.00085	.0005
4.7664	4.7660	4.76620	.00035	.0004
4.7659	4.7657	4.76580	.00040	.0002

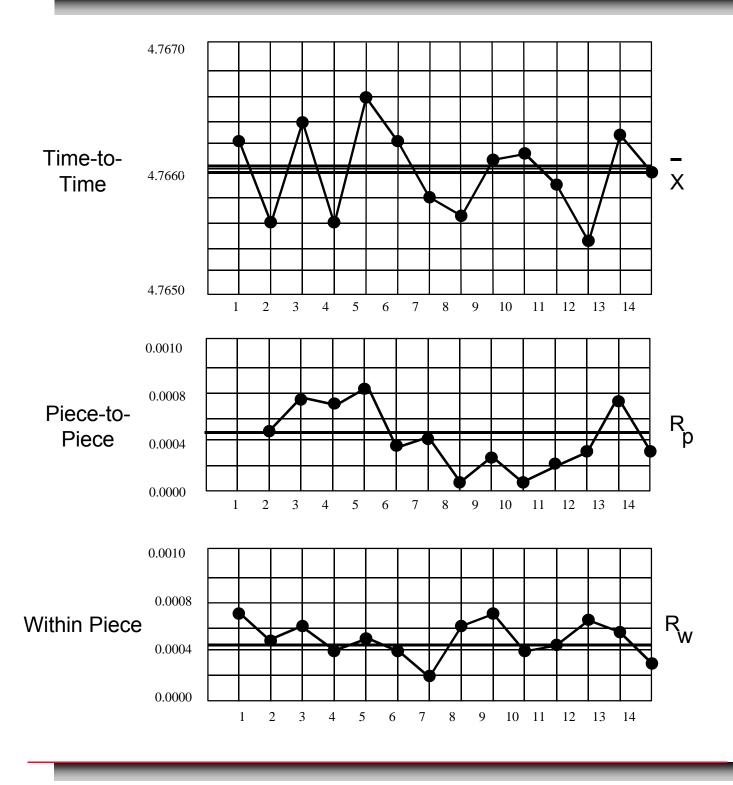
For the first 7 shafts,



$$\overline{X} = \frac{4.7659 + 4.7654}{2} = 4.76565$$
$$R_p = |4.7659 - 4.7654| = .00050$$
$$R_w = |4.76565 - 4.76615| = .00050$$









Control Chart Calculation

Same as I-MR Chart

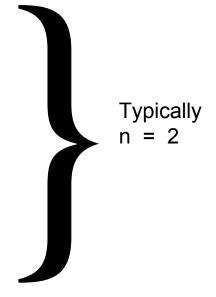
Time-to-Time: $\overline{(X)}$ $UCL = \overline{X} + E_2 \overline{R}_p$ $LCL = \overline{X} - E_2 \overline{R}_p$

Within Piece:

 $UCL = D_4 \overline{R}_W \quad LCL = 0$

Piece-to-Piece:

$$UCL = D_4 \overline{R}_p \quad LCL = 0$$





2-R Chart Example

An NC lathe produces a shaft on a Finish Turn operation. A journal on the shaft has an engineering spec requirement of 4.763/4.768. The journal is measured at two places 90 degrees apart with an OD micrometer reading to .0001 inch. In the table below the data has been coded from 4.76XX for ease of calculation.

Piece #	# Max	Min	(Max + Min)/2	Rp	Rw
1.	4.76 (65)	4.76 (58)	4.76(61.5)		.000(7)
2.	59	54	56.5	5	5
3.	67	61	64	7.5	6
4.	59	55	57	7	4
5.	68	63	65.5	8.5	5
6.	64	60	62	3.5	4
7.	59	57	58	4	2
8.	60	54	57	1	6
9.	64	57	60.5	3.5	7
10.	63	59	61	0.5	4
11.	61	56	58.5	2.5	5
12.	59	52	55.5	3	7
13.	66	60	63	7.5	6
14.	61	58	59.5	3.5	3
15.	63	60	61.5	2	3
16.	59	52	55.5	6	7
17.	58	53	55.5	0	5
18.	62	58	60	4.5	4



Example (cont.)

Piece #	Мах	Min	(Max + Min)/2	Rp	Rw	
19.	66	60				
20.	59	55				
21.	62	58				
22.	61	58				
23.	65	60				
24.	64	58				
25.	60	55				

- 1. Use Minitab and file 2r_chart to complete the data table above.
- 2. Use Minitab to construct an individuals chart on the averages, a moving range chart on the averages, and a range chart on the subgroups.
- 3. Analyze the data for stability and out-of-control indications. What is your evaluation of the process?

2-R Chart Example, X - Minitab Menu Commands

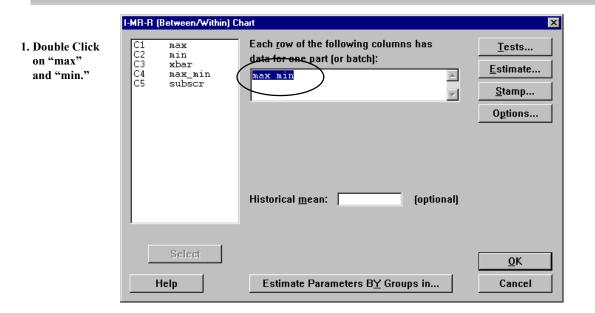
MINITAB FILE: 2r_chart.mtw

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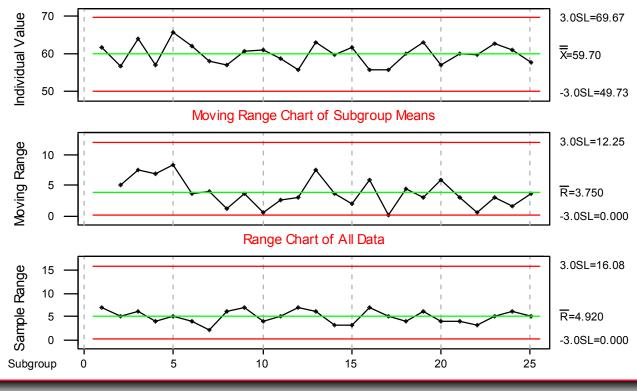
2-R Chart Example, X, R_p, R_w- Minitab Input & Output

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WB (within and between) Chart for max...min

Individuals Chart of Subgroup Means





1. Plotting the data will always tell you more than not plotting the data.

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- 2. Even a little data will identify very good and very bad processes.
- 3. Swift response to assignable cause indications has very beneficial effects.
- 4. Be aware of the assumptions you are making.

Control Chart Summary

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<u>Shewhart</u>

"CONTROLLED VARIATION"

Stable and consistent Random chance Predictable <u>Deming</u>

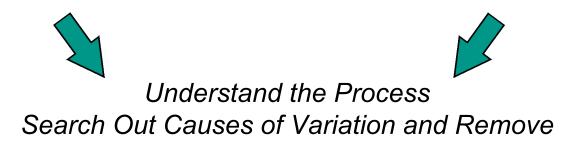
"COMMON CAUSES"

Inherent in "System" Management controls Only Management can fix

"UNCONTROLLED VARIATION"

Unstable, Inconsistent "Assignable Causes" Unpredictable "SPECIAL CAUSES"

May be local in nature Abnormal to system May be locally fixed



Five Main Uses of Control Charts

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- To reduce scrap and rework and for improving productivity.
- Defect prevention. In control means less chance of nonconforming units produced.
- Prevents unnecessary process adjustments by distinguishing between common cause variation and special or assignable cause variation.
- Provides diagnostic information so that an experienced operator can determine the state of the process by looking at patterns within the data. The operator can then make the necessary changes to improve the process performance.
- Provides information about important process parameters over time.



1. Plotting the data will always tell you more than not plotting the data.

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- 2. Even a little data will identify very good and very bad processes.
- 3. Swift response to assignable cause indications has very beneficial effects.
- 4. Be aware of the assumptions you are making.





- ✓ Uses Measured Values
 - Cycle Time, Lengths, Diameters, Drops, etc.
- Generally One
 Characteristic Per Chart
- More Expensive, But More Information



- ✓ Pass/Fail, Good/Bad, Go/No-Go Information
- Can Be Many
 Characteristics Per Chart
- Less Expensive, But Less Information



- Monitors Several Parts
 From Same Process
- Measures Deviation
 From Nominal/Target
- Typically an I & MR
 Chart Monitoring
 Several Characteristics
 of Several Parts

Control Limits

In general, control charts will use control limits which are + or - three standard deviation units from the center line.

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— UCL = Average + 3 standard deviations

- LCL = Average 3 standard deviations
- In computing three-sigma control limits, one must always use an average dispersion statistic.
- For example, in the X-R chart, R is an average dispersion statistic.
 - UCL = average + A_2R
 - LCL = average A_2R^-

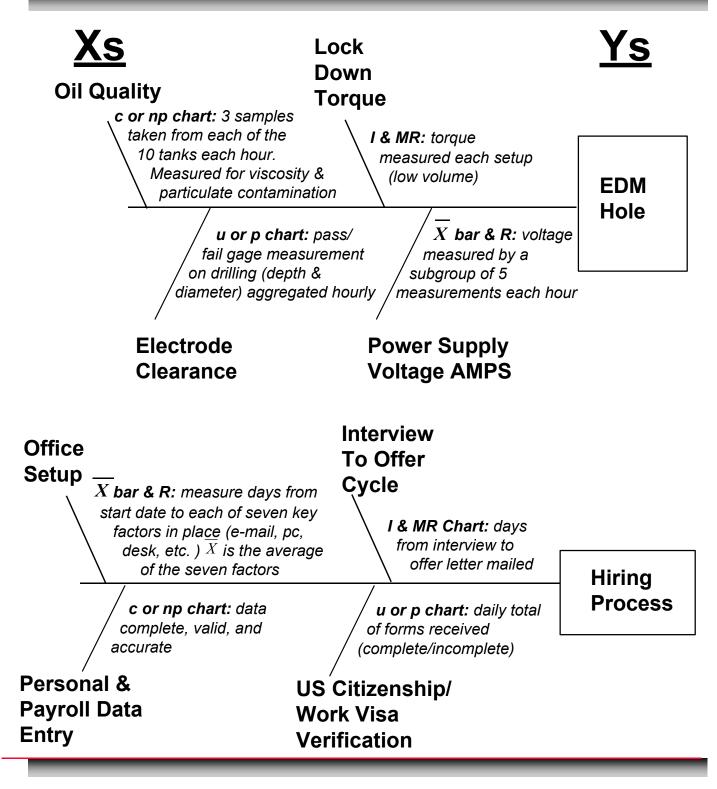


Control Limits vs. Specification Limits

- **Do not** confuse the control limits with the specification limits.
- Specification limits are external to the process. For instance, they could represent engineering requirements to satisfy a CTQ characteristic.
- Control limits are internal to the process, they reflect the expected range of variation for that process.
- Specification limits are for individual values, whereas on an X bar chart the control limits are for the sample averages.

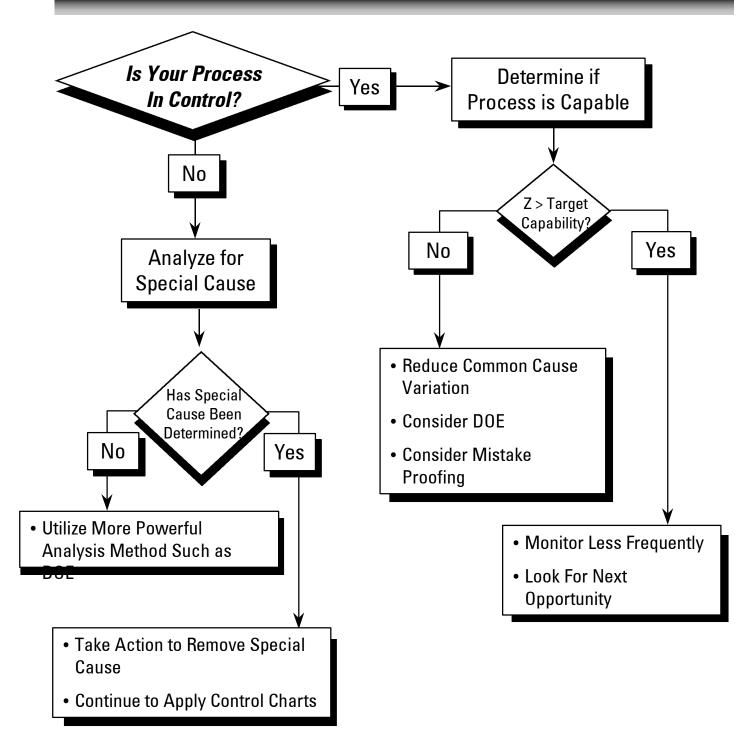


Examples: Applying Control Processes to the Xs





What Action Should You Take?



Process States

The Four States of a Process

- 1. Chaos
- Process Out-Of-Control, Producing Non-Conforming Product

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- Even the Level of Nonconformance Is Unstable
- Assignable Causes Dominate the Output
- "Fixes" Don't Work For Very Long

How to Begin to Sort Out the Problems to be Solved?

Process States (cont.)

The Four States of a Process

2. The Brink of Chaos

Process Unstable, Some Nonconforming Product Is Being Produced

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- Instability Will Continually Change Product Characteristics
- Process Output Is Influenced By Assignable Causes
- No Assurance the Next Piece Produced Will Be Conforming

How to Determine Existence of Assignable Causes?

Process States (cont.)

The Four States of a Process

3. The Threshold State

Process Inherently Stable Over Time, But Producing Some Nonconforming Product

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- Proportion Nonconforming Predictable
- Some Nonconformances Will be Shipped
- If Process Natural Spread Greater Than the Spec, Common Causes Must be Reduced/Removed
- Process Must Be Monitored to Assure Desired Effect Is Achieved

How to be Certain That the Process Has Improved?

Process States (cont.)

The Four States of a Process

- 4. The Ideal State
- The Process is Inherently Stable Over Time

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- Operating Conditions are not Changed Arbitrarily (Follow the Process Plan)
- The Process Average is Set and Kept at the Proper Level
- The Natural Spread of the Process is Less Than the Specified Tolerance

How to be Certain That None of These Conditions Change or Degrade? Establish how your process improvement requires monitoring

- Review current measurement system (e.g., switch to continuous data)
- If mistake proof solution no chart is normally required
- Attribute (u, p, c, np) or Variable (individuals, moving range, x-bar, range)
- Establish LCL/UCL insuring that they are within the LSL/USL
- Establish control charts with process capability
- Establish owner of control charts & process
- Review risk of going out of control

Control Deliverables (cont.)

Establish periodic auditing requirements

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- Review mistake proof solution
- Insure team members understand control requirements
- Finalize financial savings
- Update Six Sigma Quality Project Tracking database

Exercise: 20 mins.

For one or more projects in your term, brainstorm possible ways to control your process improvement.

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- What control techniques will you use?
 - Control charts--variable or attribute
 - Documentation
 - Checklists
 - Standardization

One or Two groups will be asked to report their findings.

Understand the phases of a quality plan:

— Adequate Customer Requirement Review

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- Producible Design
- Adequate Manufacturing Method
- Effective Control Plan
- Sufficient Appraisal
- Capability has an inverse relationship with the need for appraisal.

- Risk management is the process of managing risk through risk abatement plans.
- *Risk management can be used to:*
 - Systematically identify risk elements that can interfere with a process

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- Prevent risk elements from occurring through risk abatement plans
- Communicate risk to management
- There are different types of risks such as cost risks, technology risks, specification risks, marketing risks, and installation risks.
- Identify risk, calculate risk scores, and take action to mitigate or eliminate the risk.

Variable control charts can be used with continuous data to tell when a process is:

- experiencing only common cause variation and working at its intended best
- when the process is disturbed and needs corrective action
- Control charts:
 - time ordered plot of data
 - reflect the expected range of variation of the data
 - identifies when a special cause appears to be influencing the data
- X-Bar & R charts are used for plotting means and ranges of subgroups over time.
- I & MR charts are used for plotting individual values and moving ranges over time.

Take Aways—Mistake Proofing

Mistake proofing is a proactive tool used to eliminate or reduce errors.

- There are many types of human error.
- There are many error-provoking conditions.
- Inspection is limited in improving quality.
- Mistakes can be Predicted, Prevented, or Detected.
- **There are five mistake proofing steps:**
 - Identify Problems
 - Prioritize Problems
 - Seek Out the Root Cause
 - Create Solutions
 - Measure the Results

Control limits are typically calculated as 3 standard deviations away from the mean of the process.

- Control limits and specification limits are not the same.
 - Control limits are calculated from the sample data; they are internal to the process
 - Specification limits are determined by your performance standard; they are external to the process
- Know when a process is out of control: Western Electric Rules.
- Control charts are only as good as the actions that you take to keep the process under control.

Attribute control charts are used to monitor the level of nonconformance of a process.

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- Select the appropriate attribute control chart based upon
 - *constant vs. variable lot size*
 - defects vs. defectives
- Defect
 - A single characteristic that does not meet requirements
- Defective
 - A unit that contains one or more DEFECTS



Process Focused Control Charts allow us to monitor several parts within the same process.

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- Data is recorded as variation from a target.
- 2-R control charts can be used when trying to monitor an out-of-round, flat, etc. condition.

Control charts are effective only to the extent that the organization uses the knowledge the charts provide.

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- The validity of Control charts is built upon the proper use of rational sampling and rational subgrouping.
- Different subgroups answer different questions.