

# Lean Six Sigma Black Belt

## Volume 2

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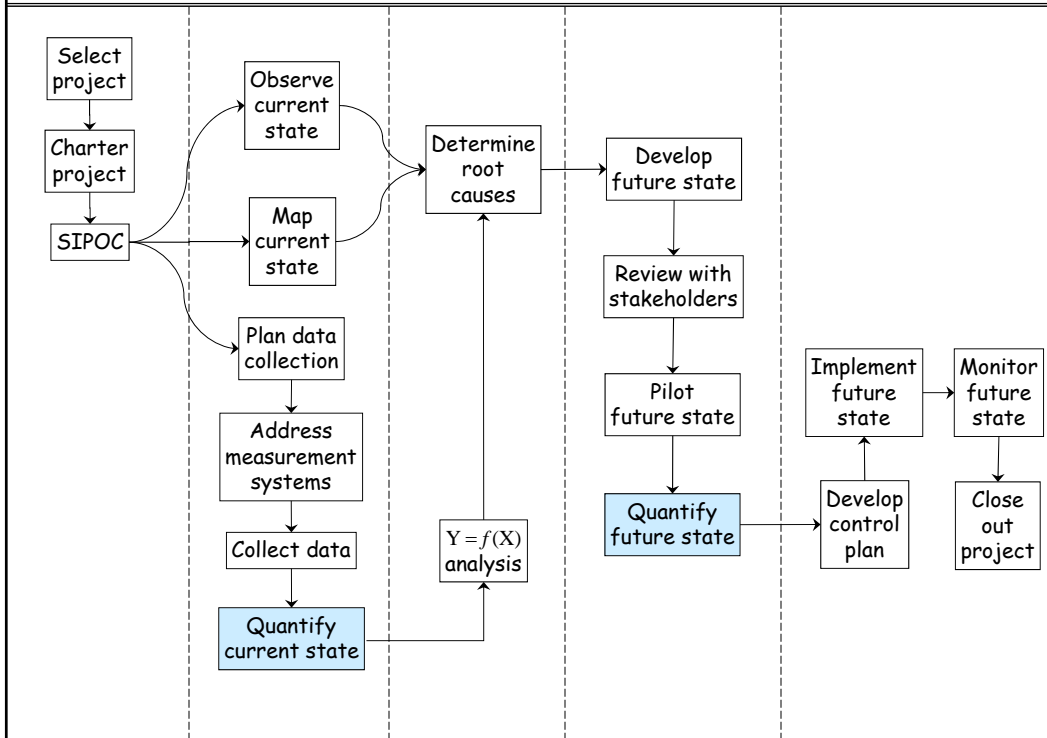
# Lean Six Sigma Black Belt, Vol. 2

## Course outline with slide numbers

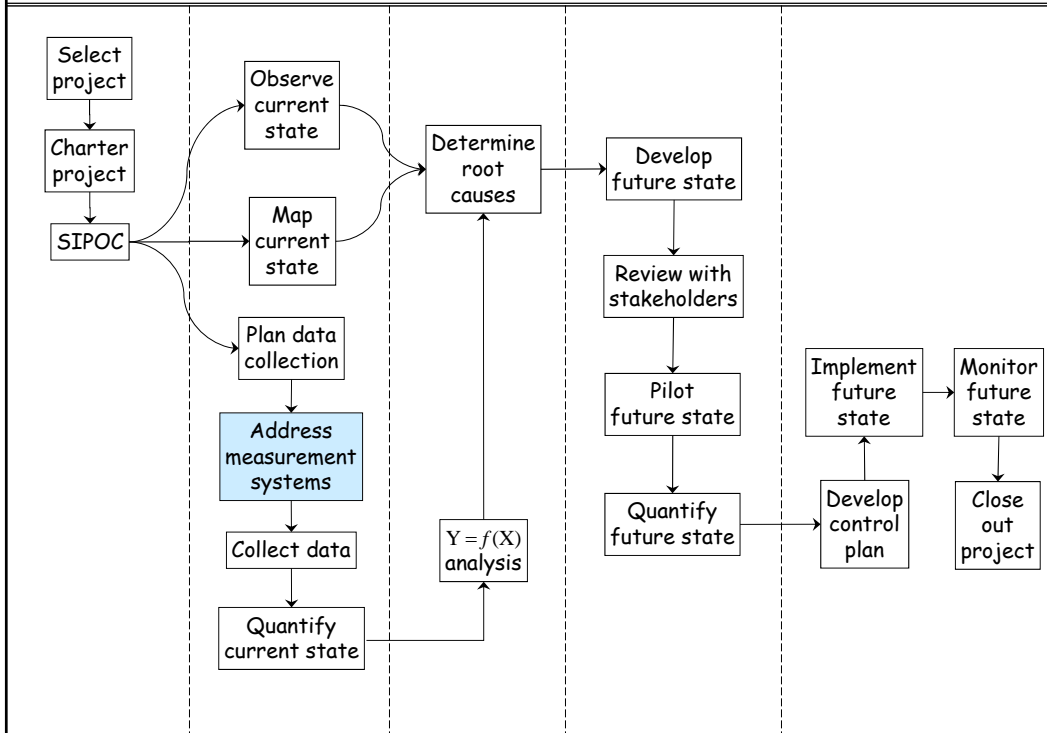
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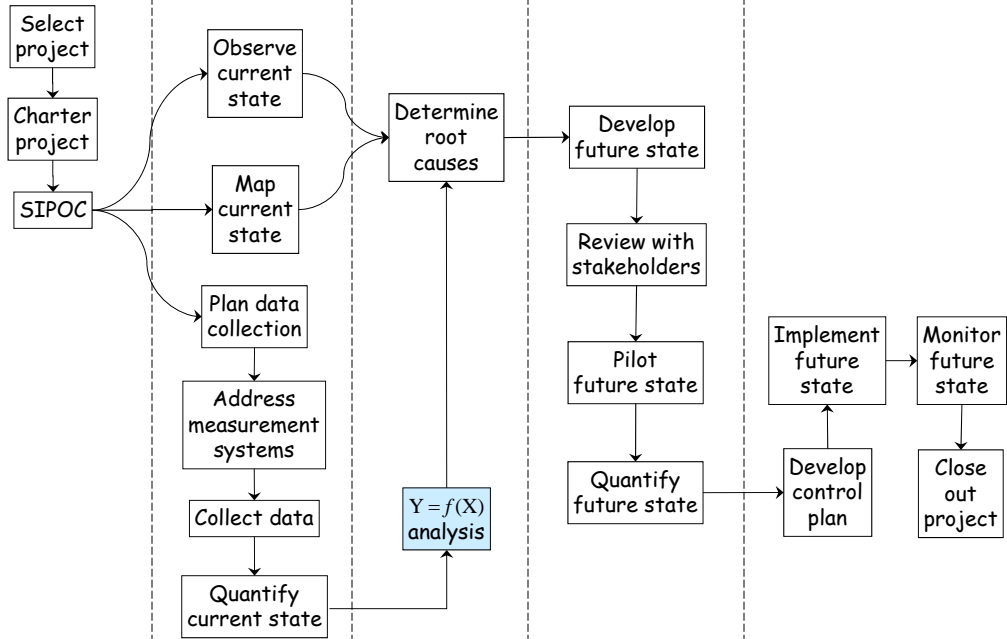
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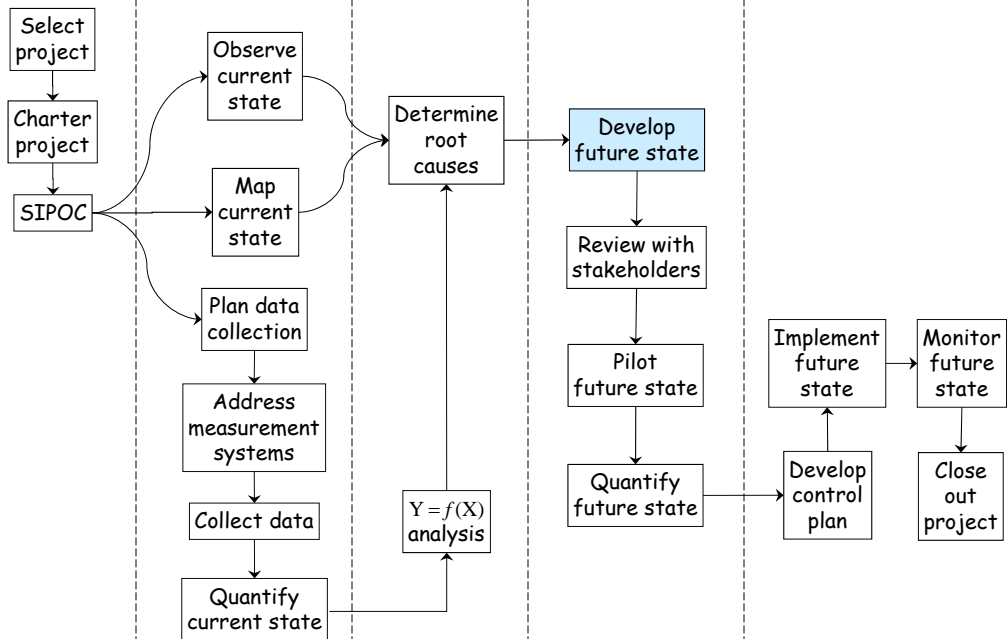
## LSS Vol 2, Section 6



## LSS Vol 2, Sections 7-12, 24, 26, 27



## LSS Vol 2, Sections 13-23, 25, 28



Recommended default preferences for JMP		
<p><i>File</i> ↓ <i>Preferences</i> ↓ <i>Platforms</i></p> <p>Uncheck any options not shown here</p>	Platforms	Options
	Attribute Chart	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Attribute Gauge Chart</li> <li>✓ Show Agreement Points</li> <li>✓ Connect Agreement Points</li> <li>✓ Show Agreement Grand Mean</li> </ul>
	Bivariate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Show Points</li> <li>✓ Fit Line</li> </ul>
	Contingency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Mosaic Plot</li> <li>✓ Contingency Table</li> <li>✓ Tests</li> <li>✓ Count</li> <li>✓ Row %</li> </ul>
	Distribution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Summary Statistics</li> <li>✓ Horizontal Layout</li> <li>✓ Histogram</li> <li>✓ Outlier Box Plot</li> <li>✓ Frequencies</li> <li>✓ Separate Bars</li> </ul>

JMP defaults (cont'd)		
<p><i>File</i> ↓ <i>Preferences</i> ↓ <i>Platforms</i></p> <p>Uncheck any options not shown here</p>	Platforms	Options
	Distribution Summary Statistics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Mean</li> <li>✓ Std Dev</li> <li>✓ N</li> <li>✓ Minimum</li> <li>✓ Maximum</li> </ul>
	DOE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Suppress Cotter Designs</li> <li>✓ Optimality Criterion → Make D-Optimal Design</li> </ul>
	Fit Distribution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Diagnostic Plot</li> <li>✓ Density Curve</li> </ul>
	Fit Least Squares	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Profiler</li> <li>✓ Summary of Fit</li> <li>✓ Analysis of Variance</li> <li>✓ Effect Tests</li> <li>✓ Plot Regression</li> <li>✓ Plot Residual by Predicted</li> </ul>

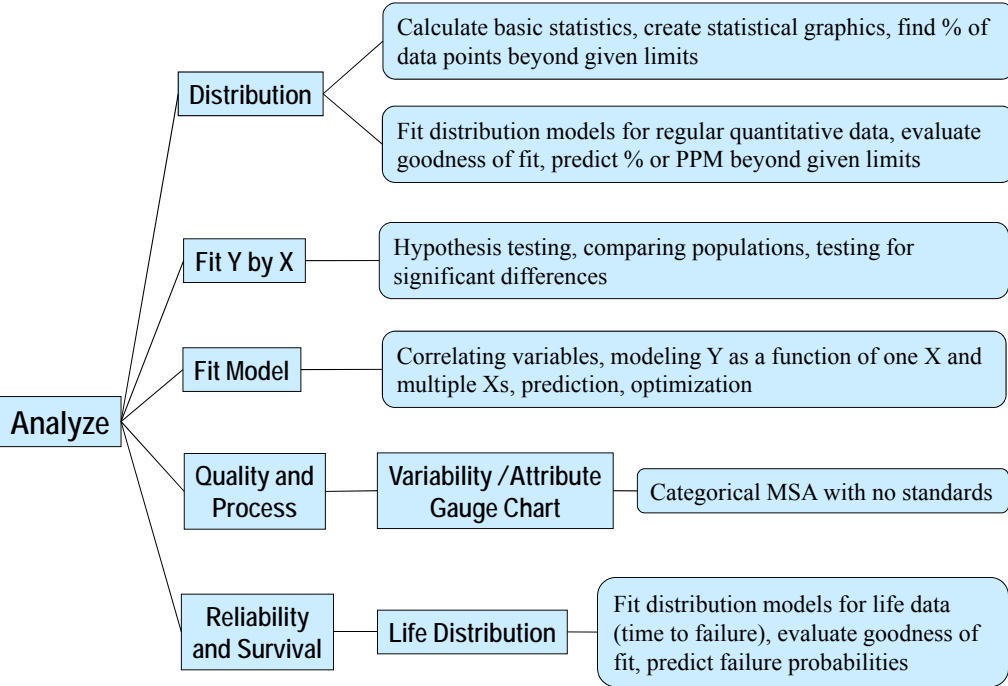
JMP defaults (cont'd)		
<p><i>File</i> ↓ <i>Preferences</i> ↓ <i>Platforms</i></p> <p>Uncheck any options not shown here</p>	Platforms	Options
	Fit Nominal Logistic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Logistic Plot</li> <li>✓ Likelihood Ratio Tests</li> <li>✓ Profiler</li> </ul>
	Life Distribution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Show Points</li> <li>✓ Show Statistics</li> <li>✓ Show Confidence Area</li> <li>✓ Interval Type → Pointwise</li> </ul>
	Model Dialog	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Center Polynomials</li> <li>✓ Emphasis → Minimal Report</li> </ul>
	Oneway	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Means/Anova</li> <li>✓ All Graphs</li> <li>✓ Points</li> <li>✓ Mean Diamonds</li> <li>✓ Connect Means</li> <li>✓ X Axis Proportional</li> <li>✓ Points Jittered</li> </ul>

JMP defaults (cont'd)		
<p><i>File</i> ↓ <i>Preferences</i> ↓ <i>Platforms</i></p> <p>Uncheck any options not shown here</p>	Platforms	Options
	Overlay Plot	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Overlay Y's</li> <li>✓ Separate Axes</li> <li>✓ Show Points</li> <li>✓ Connect Points</li> <li>✓ Line Width → Thin</li> <li>✓ Automatic Recalc</li> </ul>
	Variability Chart	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Variability Chart</li> <li>✓ Show Points</li> <li>✓ Show Range Bars</li> <li>✓ Connect Cell Means</li> <li>✓ Show Separators</li> <li>✓ Show Group Means</li> <li>✓ Points Jittered</li> </ul>



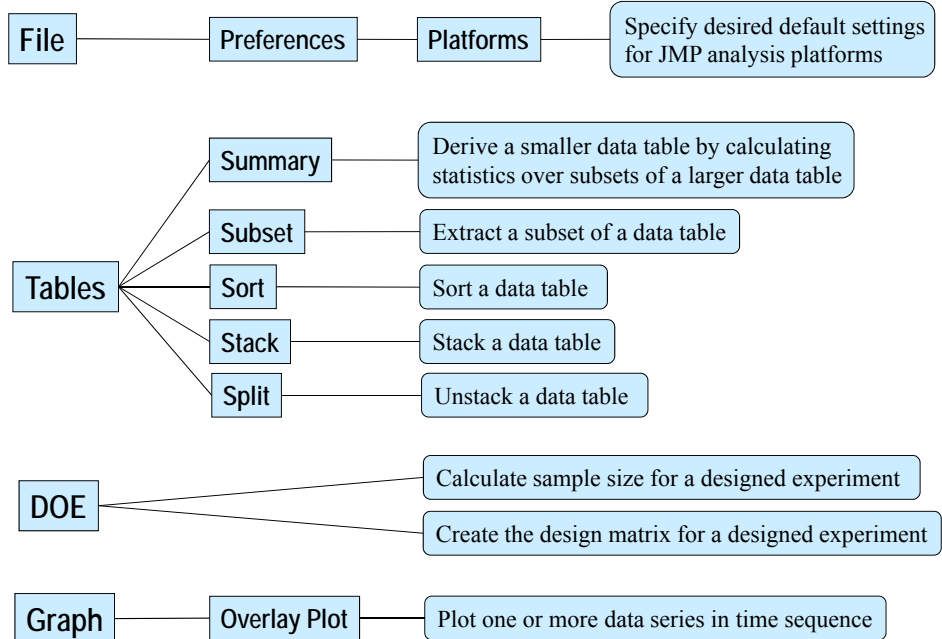
# 1 JMP menu map

1



# JMP menu map (cont'd)

2



## 2 Basic Statistics and Statistical Graphics

3

- Frequency histogram
- Cumulative distribution function
- Percentiles
- Box and whisker plot
- JMP distribution analysis
- Data validation
- Distribution analysis options
- Plotting data in time sequence
- Saving analyses and data tables

### Notes

4

Y variables are characteristics of parts or transactions that determine customer satisfaction, or lack thereof. They provide the data from which project metrics are computed. In sections 2 and 3 we focus on *quantitative* Y variables. Examples include:

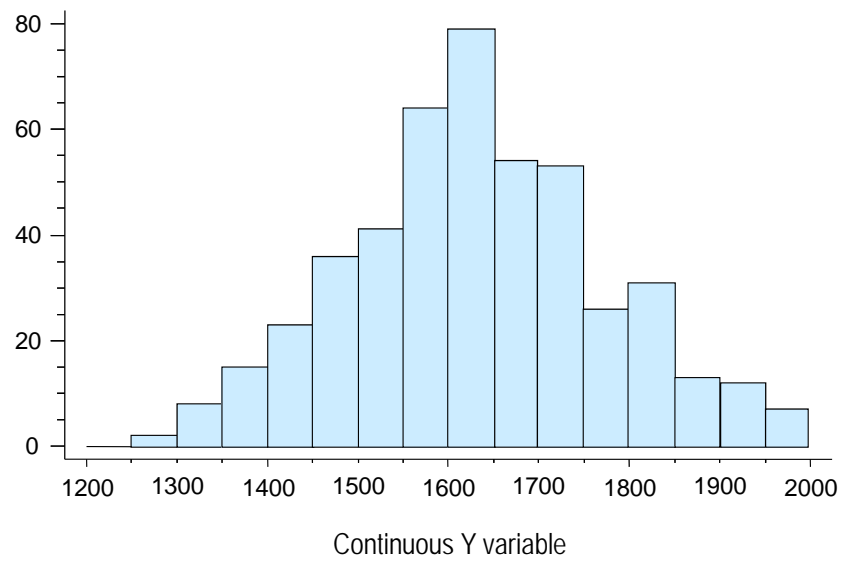
- Properties: physical, chemical, electrical, optical, . . .
- Distance, time, dimensions, cost, quantity
- Event counts (when there is not a discrete number of opportunities for the event to occur)

JMP uses the term *continuous* for quantitative variables, and often uses the term *nominal* for categorical variables.

## Frequency histogram

5

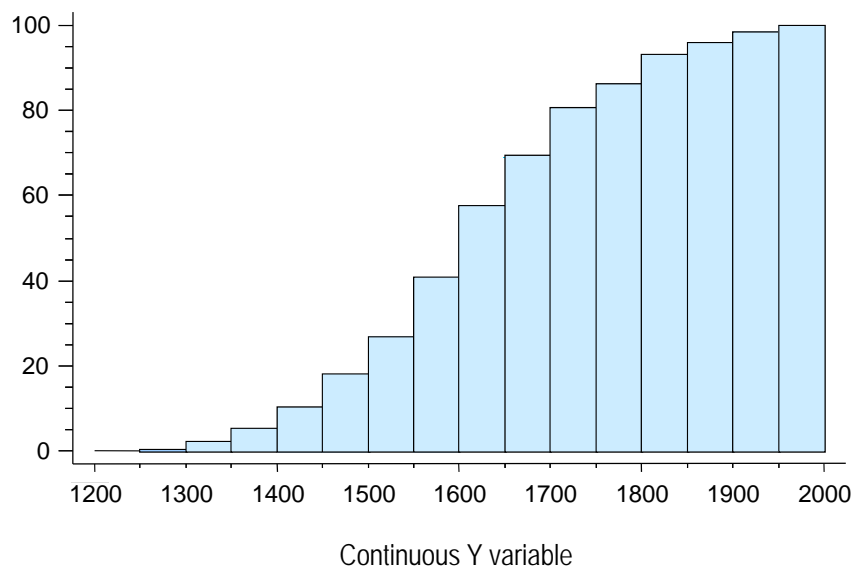
*Number of data points in each bin*



## Cumulative percentage histogram

6

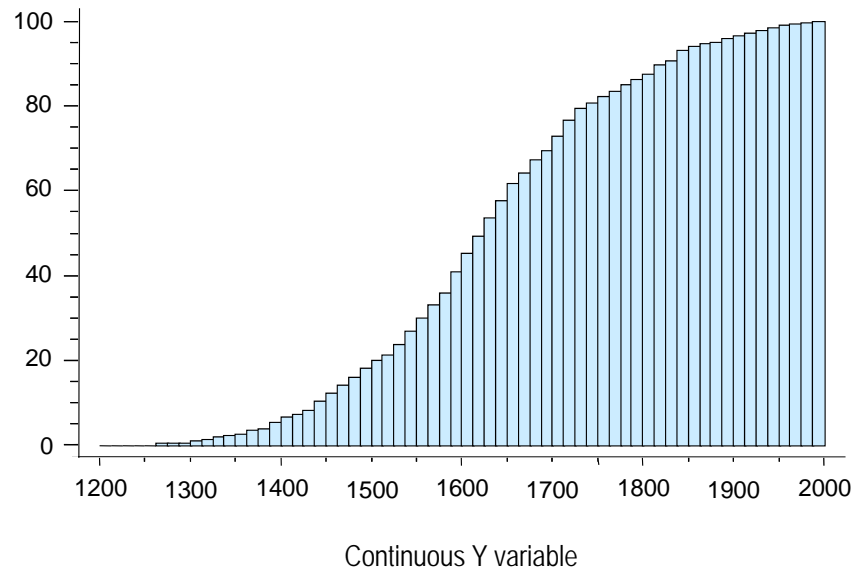
*Percentage of data points  $\leq$  upper limit of each bin*



## Cumulative percentage histogram (cont'd)

7

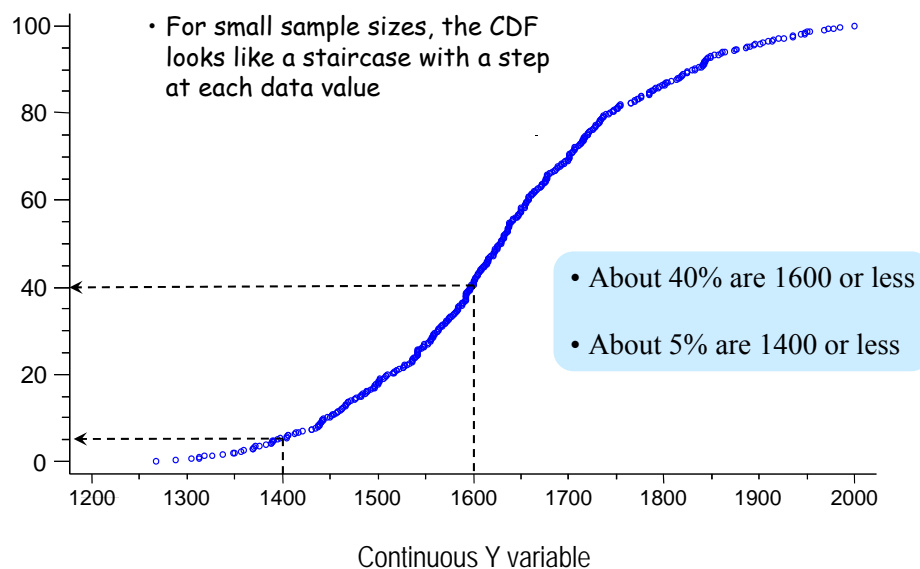
*Made the bins smaller*



## Cumulative distribution function (CDF)

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- Bins are so small they isolate individual data values
- For small sample sizes, the CDF looks like a staircase with a step at each data value



A *percentile* is a value that divides a population or data set into two groups, based on a stated percentage

10% are less than the **10<sup>th</sup> percentile**, 90% are greater

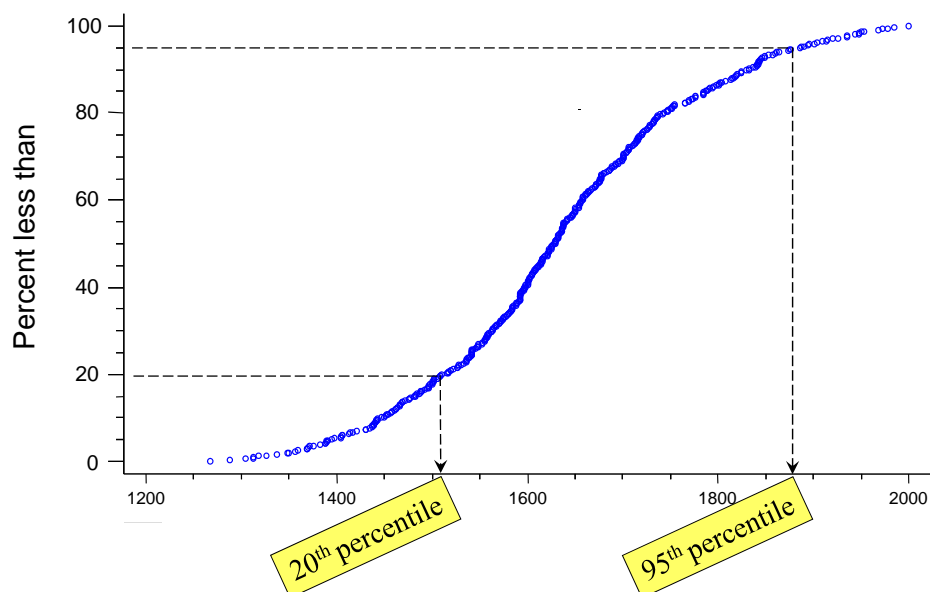
25% are less than the **25<sup>th</sup> percentile**, 75% are greater

50% are less than the **50<sup>th</sup> percentile**, 50% are greater

75% are less than the **75<sup>th</sup> percentile**, 25% are greater

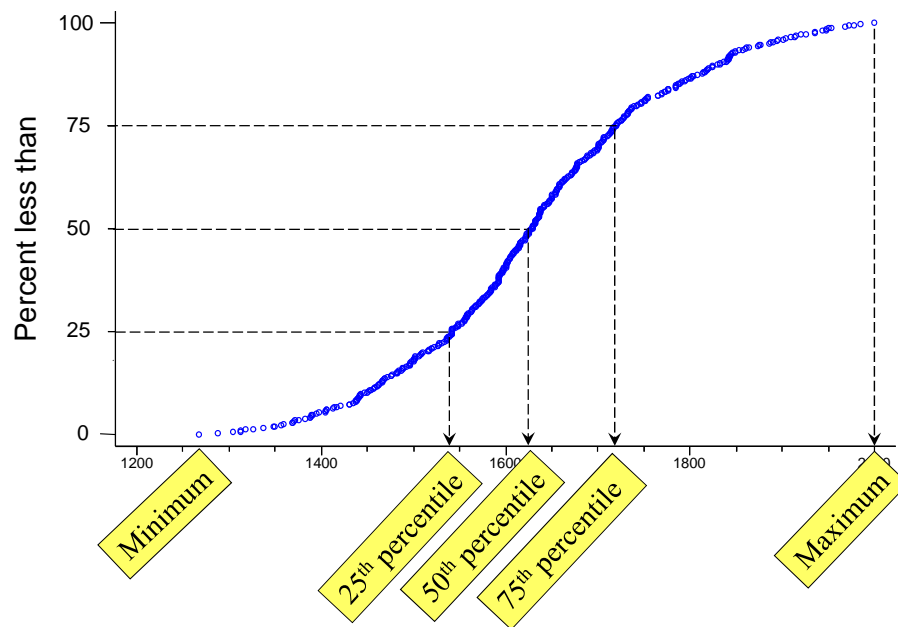
90% are less than the **90<sup>th</sup> percentile**, 10% are greater

*Illustration of 20<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles*



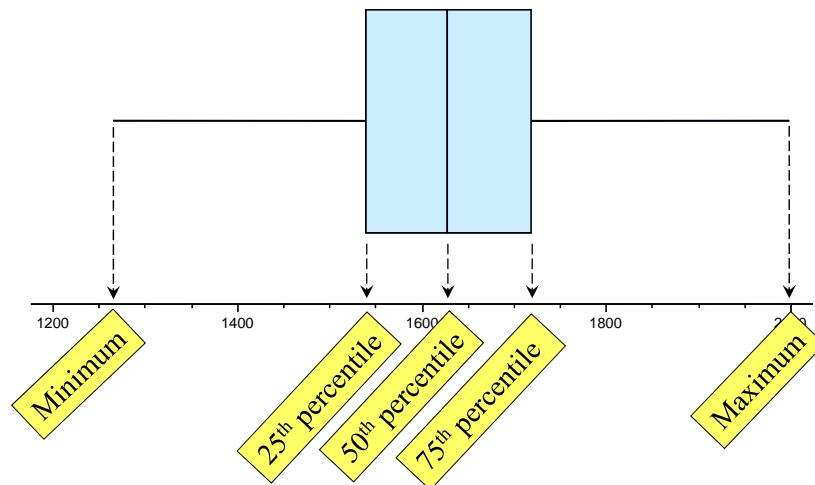
## Common percentile-based data summary

11



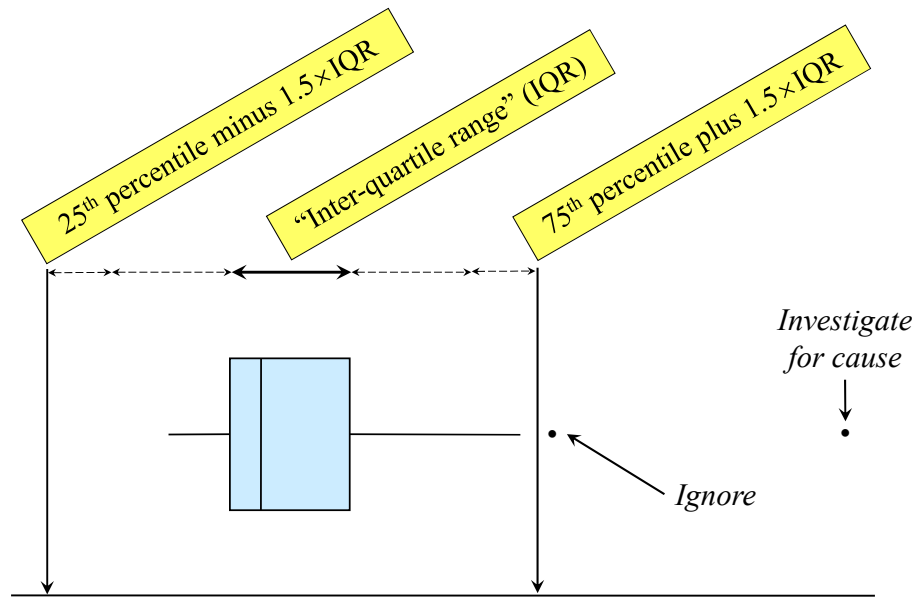
## Box-and-whisker plot

12



## Rule for plotting points separately

13



Points plotted separately may or may not represent assignable causes

Notes

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## JMP distribution analysis

15

File → Open → *LSSV2 data sets* → *lead time 1* → Open

Analyze  
↓  
Distribution  
↓

## Data validation

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Frequency histogram

• Outlier  
• Not always visible in the histogram  
• Click on it  
• Look in the data table

## Data validation (cont'd)

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lead time 1 - JMP [2]

Source	Lead time
1	9.61
2	9.71
3	9.54
4	9.67
5	9.75
6	9.49
7	9.55
8	94.2
9	9.58
10	9.61
11	9.87
12	9.93
13	9.81
14	9.89
15	9.94

lead time 1 - JMP [2]

Source	Lead time
1	9.61
2	9.71
3	9.54
4	9.67
5	9.75
6	9.49
7	9.55
8	9.42
9	9.58
10	9.61
11	9.87
12	9.93
13	9.81
14	9.89
15	9.94

- ✓ Data entry error
- ✓ Enter the correct value
- ✓ Go to next slide

## Redoing an analysis

18

lead time 1 - Distribution of Lead time - JMP [2]

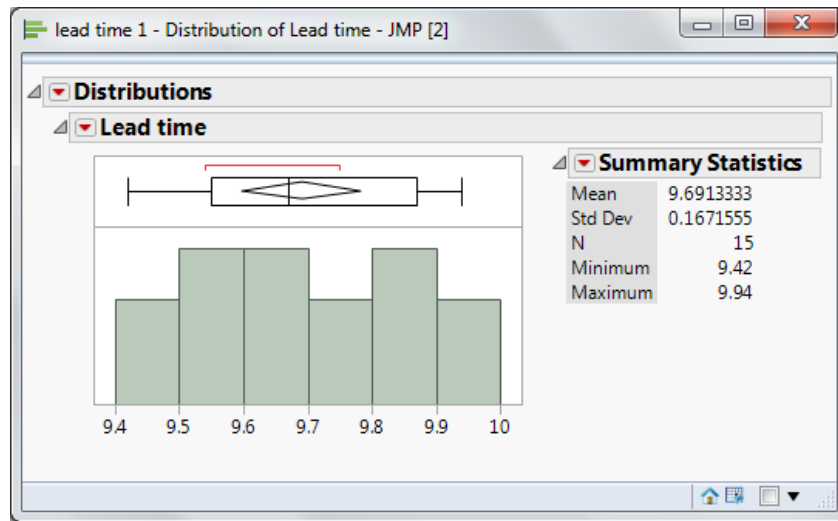
**Distributions**

**Lead time**

**Summary Statistics**

Mean	15.343333
Std Dev	21.815551
N	15
Minimum	9.49
Maximum	94.2

- Click on this red triangle
- Gives context specific options
- Select *Script*
- Select *Redo Analysis*
- See next slide

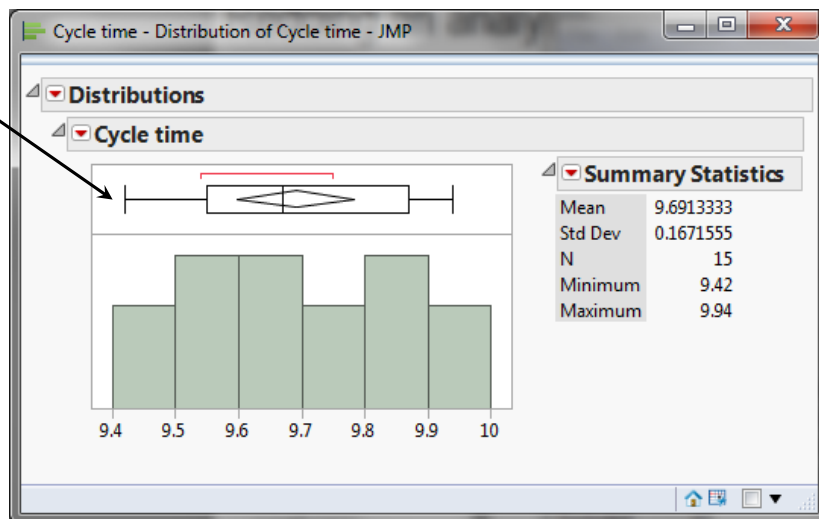


Note the change in the histogram and the summary statistics

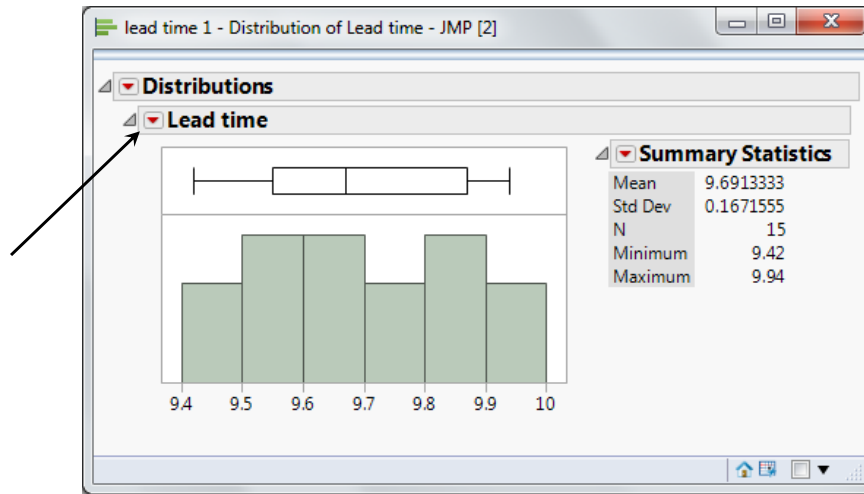
- Right click in here while holding down the *Alt* key

- Select *Customize* → *OK* → *Box Plot*

- Uncheck *Confidence Diamond* and *Shortest Half* → *OK*



- What remains is the box and whisker plot
- JMP calls it *Outlier Box Plot* because its main purpose in this context is to show outliers



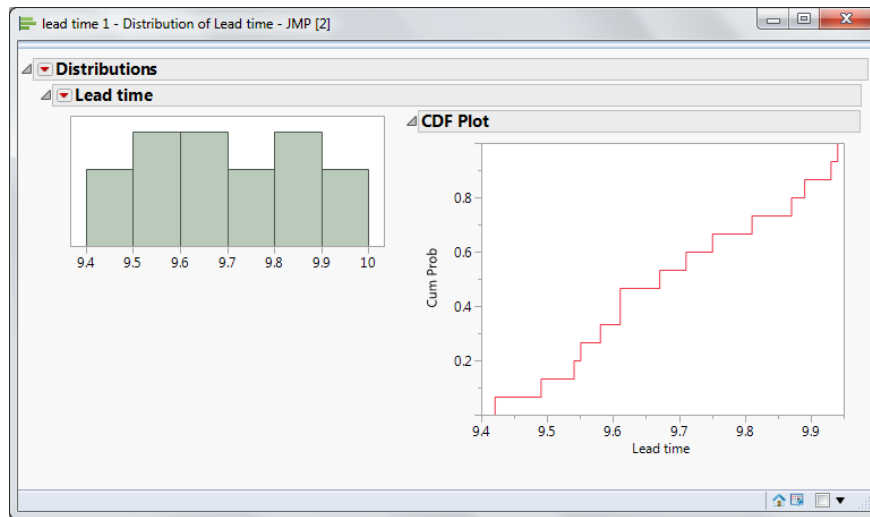
- Click on the red triangle next to *Lead time* while holding down the *Alt* key
- This will show the analysis options for the *Distribution* platform
- See next slide

Just for practice:

Uncheck *Summary Statistics* and *Outlier Box Plot* → Check *CDF Plot* → OK

## Cumulative distribution function (CDF)

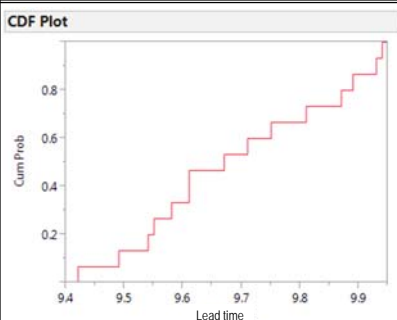
23



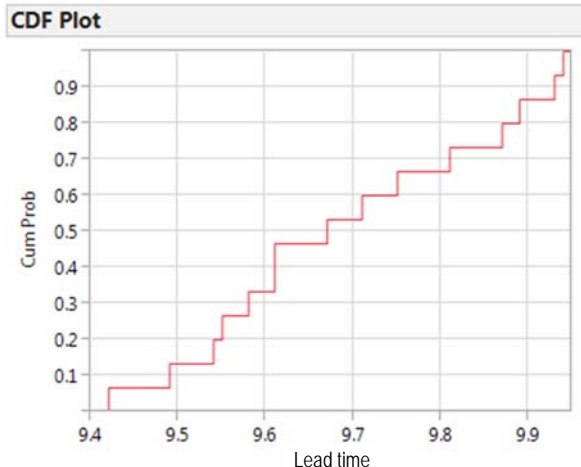
- Plots the proportion of data points  $\leq$  each value in the data set
- The step size at each data value is usually  $1/N$ , where  $N$  is the sample size
- If the same value occurs twice in the data set, the step size there is  $2/N$

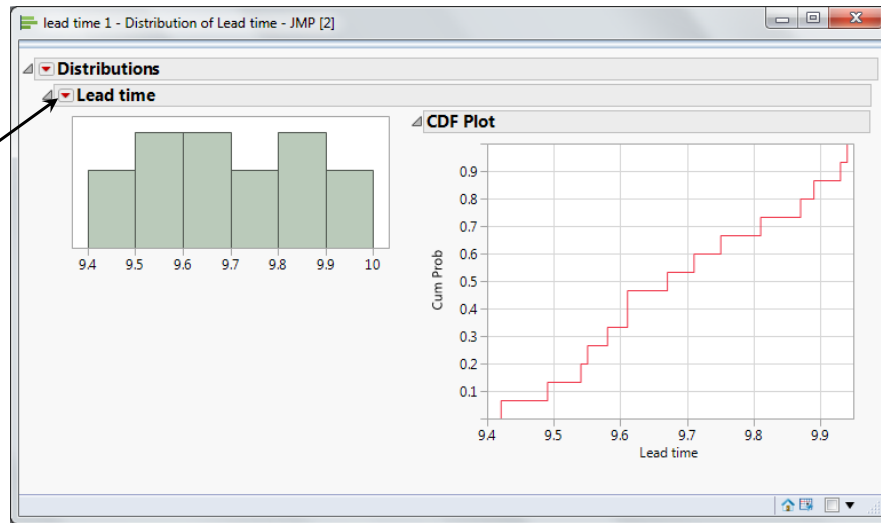
## Modifying JMP plots

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- Double click on a number on the Y axis → change *Increment* to 0.1 → check *Major Gridlines* → uncheck *Minor Tickmark* → OK
- Double click on a number on the X axis → check *Major Gridlines* → uncheck *Minor Tickmark* → OK



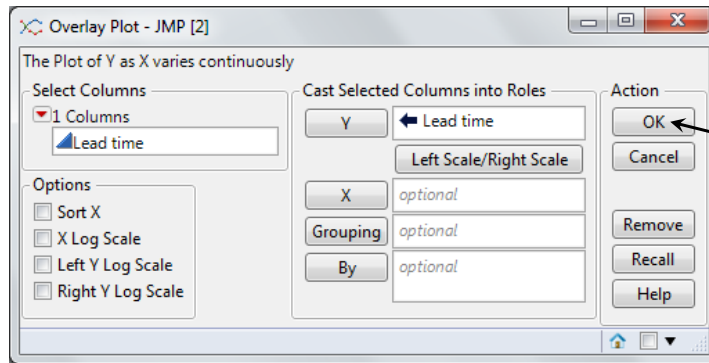


- Suppose we want to know the percentage of data points exceeding 9.8
- Click the *Lead time* red triangle → select *Capability Analysis* → enter 9.8 for the *Upper Spec Limit* → click OK

Capability Analysis			
Specification	Value	Portion	% Actual
Lower Spec Limit	.	Below LSL	.
Spec Target	.	Above USL	33.3333
Upper Spec Limit	9.8	Total Outside	33.3333

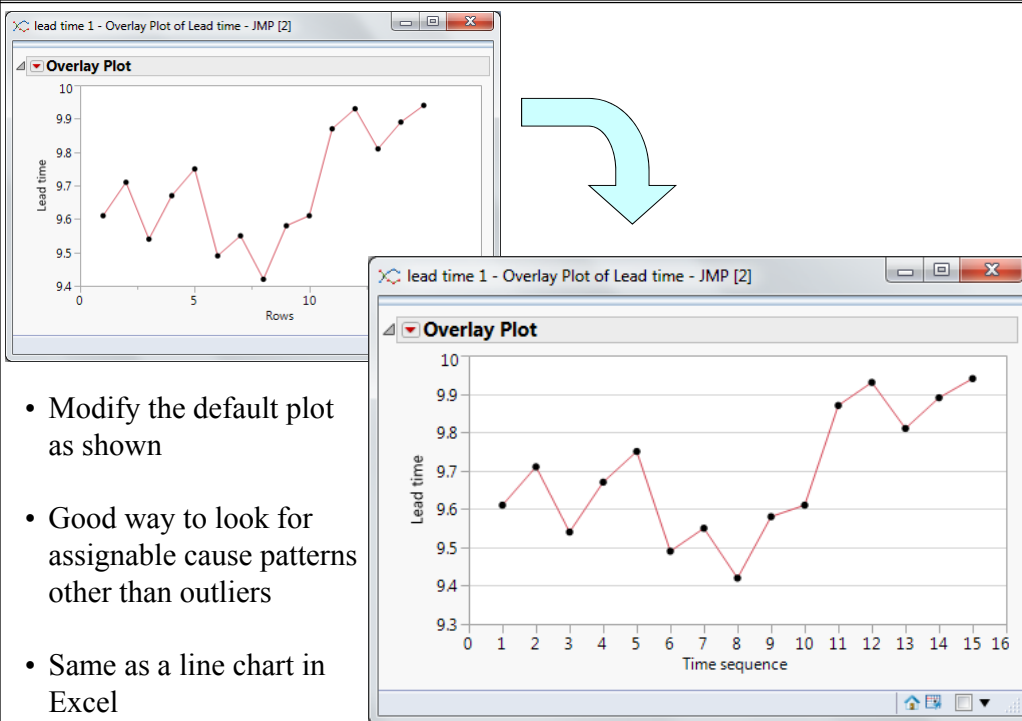
- Ignore the *Long Term Sigma* section of the output
- It gives predicted percentages based on the Normal (bell shaped) distribution curve
- We will cover distribution fitting in the next section

## Graph → Overlay Plot



- You can have different left and right scales for plotting multiple Y variables
- A date, time, or other sequencing variable would go in the X slot
- Putting a variable in the *Grouping* or *By* slot will produce one plot for each value of that variable (the output formats differ slightly)

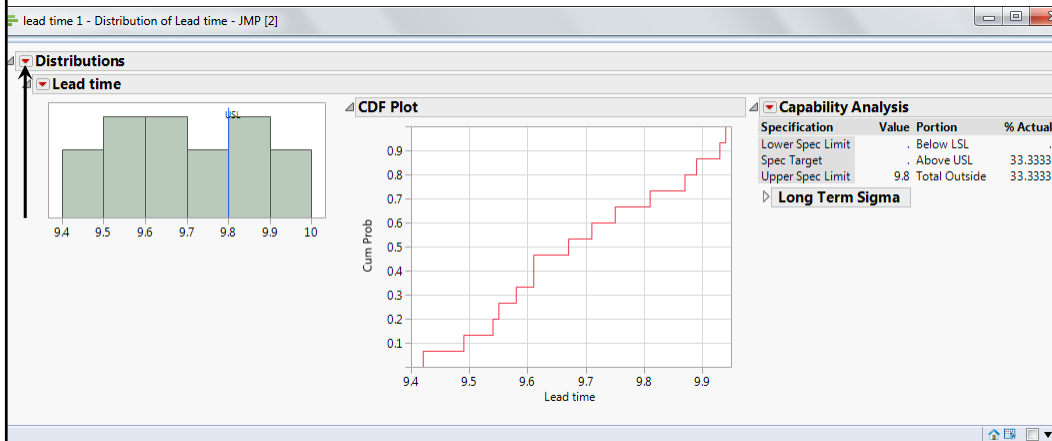
## Overlay plot (cont'd)



- Modify the default plot as shown
- Good way to look for assignable cause patterns other than outliers
- Same as a line chart in Excel

## Saving your analyses and data table

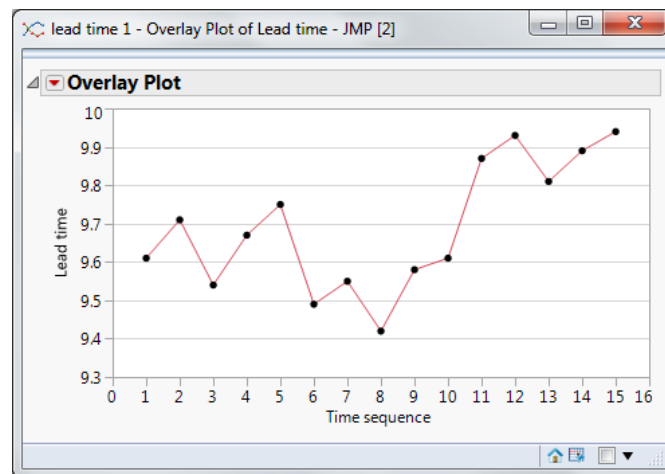
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- Click on the thumbnail for your distribution analysis
- Click the red triangle next to *Distributions*
- Select *Script* → *Save Script to Data Table*

## Saving things (cont'd)

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- Click on the thumbnail for your overlay plot
- Click the red triangle next to *Overlay Plot*
- Select *Script* → *Save Script to Data Table*
- Go to your data table

## Saving things (cont'd)

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File Edit Tables Rows Cols DOE Analyze Graph Tools View Window Help

▼ Cycle times

Notes C:\Documents and Settings\... \...

▼ Distribution

▼ Overlay Plot

Columns (1/0)

▲ Lead time

	Lead time
1	9.61
2	9.71
3	9.54
4	9.67
5	9.75
6	9.49
7	9.55
8	9.42
9	9.58
10	9.61
11	9.87
12	9.93
13	9.81
14	9.89
15	9.94

Rows

All rows	15
Selected	0
Excluded	0
Hidden	0
Labelled	0

- Two scripts have been added to the left panel
- If you save the file (as JMP), the scripts will be saved with it
- The next time you open the file, you can run the scripts to recreate the analyses exactly as you left them
- Close and save your data table now\*

\* Use **Save As** to make sure you can find the file next time you want to open it

## Notes

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## Exercise 2.1

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Open *LSSV2 data sets \ quotation process* (in JMP). Perform the following data analysis tasks for the variable *TAT* (turnaround time).

- (a) Run a distribution analysis. Note the large number of points plotted separately on the outlier box plot. This pattern is common with asymmetric “ski slope” distributions that pile up near zero. These points are *not* assignable causes, so don’t exclude them. (If you exclude them and run the analysis again, a new set will crop up. If there were points far to the right of the main group, *they* might be assignable causes and, upon investigation, might need to be excluded.)
- (b) Record the average, standard deviation, sample size, minimum, and maximum.
- (c) Turn off the outlier box plot.
- (d) Find the % of data points exceeding 3.
- (e) Save your analysis script. Close and save the data table.

## Exercise 2.2

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Open *LSSV2 data sets \ DI water* (in JMP). Perform the following data analysis tasks for the variable *Resistivity*.

- (a) Create an overlay plot. You should see something that suggests bad data (stretch the graph if necessary). Use your mouse to draw a box around the suspicious data points. Right click in an uninhabited area of the plot, select *Row Hide and Exclude*.
- (b) Run a distribution analysis. Record the average, standard deviation, sample size, minimum, and maximum.
- (c) Turn off the outlier box plot.
- (d) Find the % of data points falling below 1500.
- (e) Save your analysis scripts. Close and save the data table.

### 3 Fitting and Using Distributions

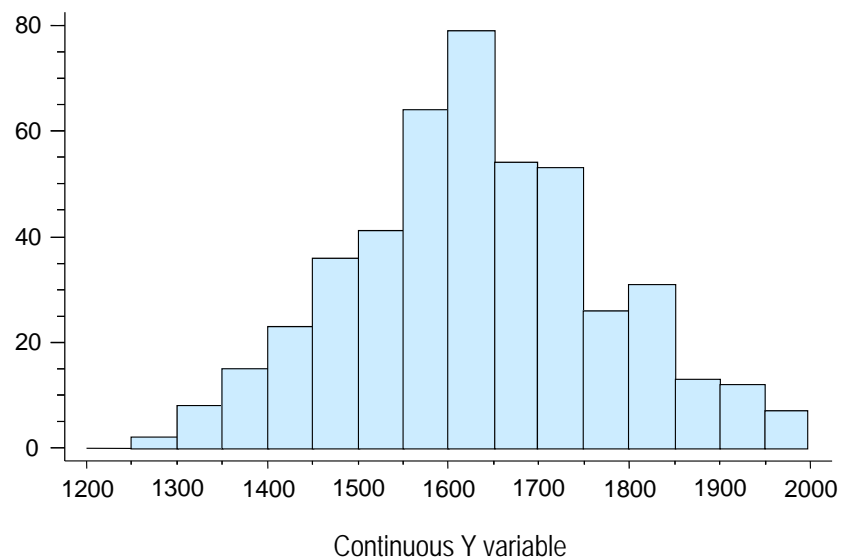
35

- Distribution curves
- Checking goodness of fit
- JMP examples
- Fitting and using the Normal distribution
- Fitting and using the Lognormal distribution
- Finding the best fitting distribution(s)
- Using the best fitting distributions(s)

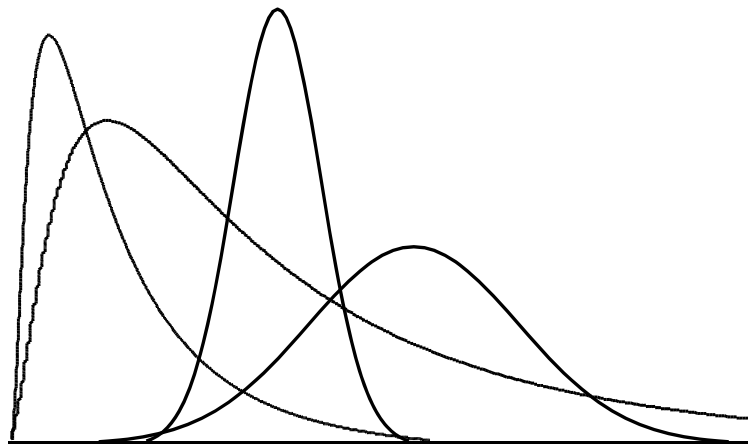
### Frequency histogram

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*A description of the data*

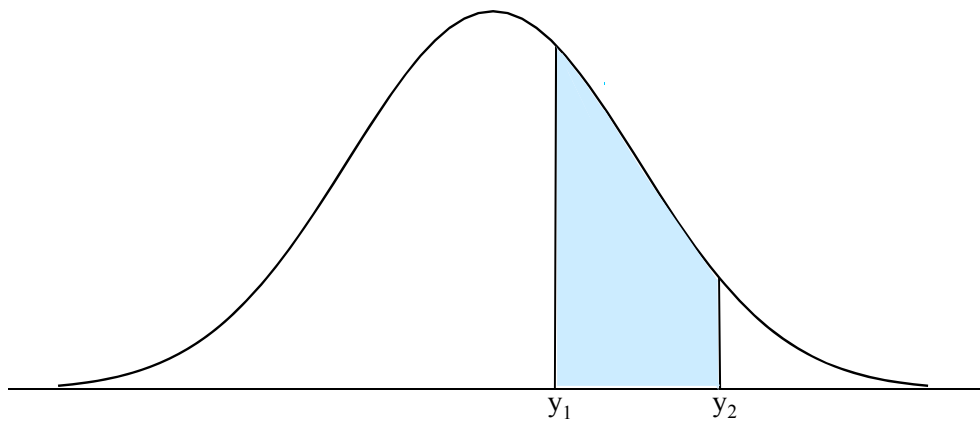


*Possible descriptions of the population*



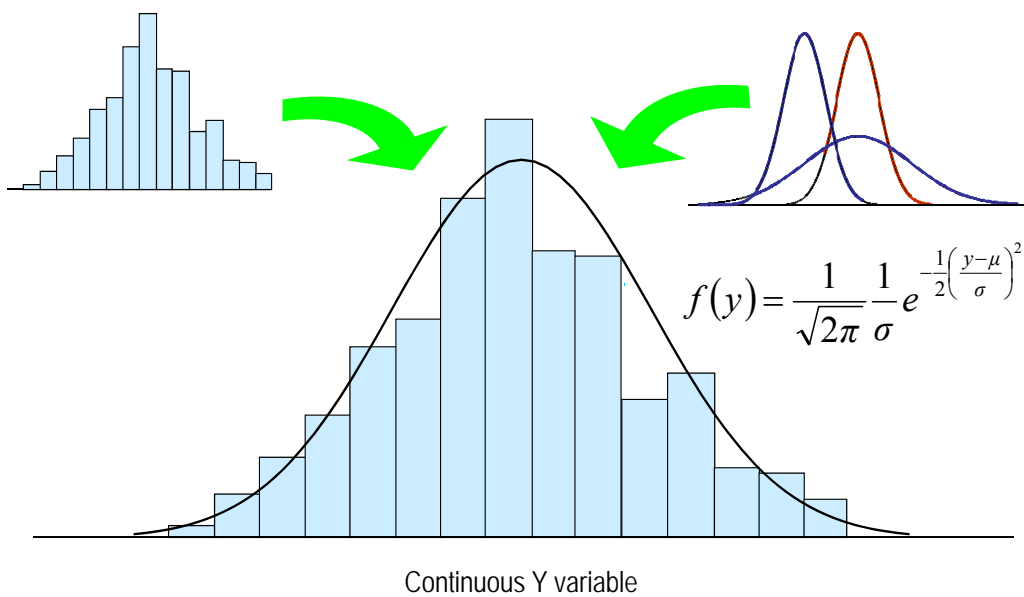
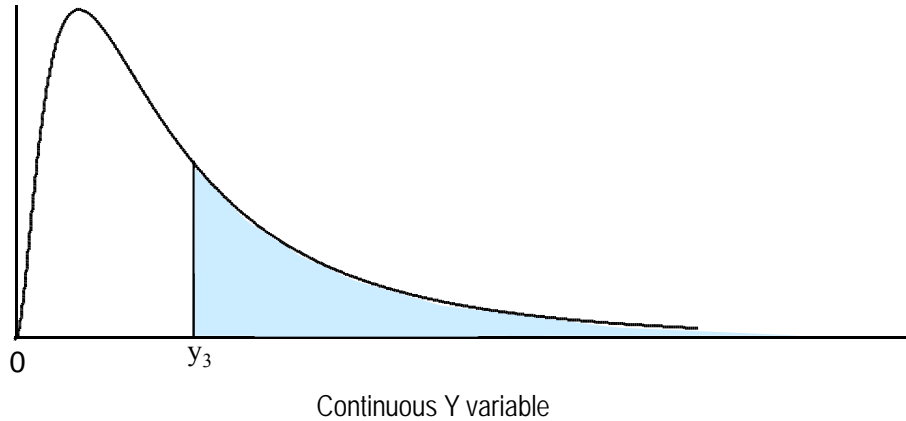
Continuous Y variable

*Area under the curve between  $y_1$  and  $y_2$   
= % of the population with  $y_1 < Y \leq y_2$*

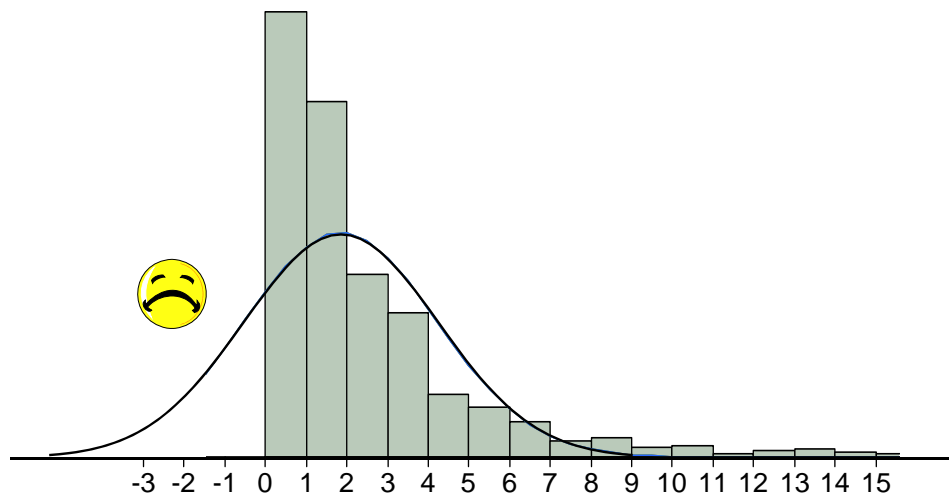
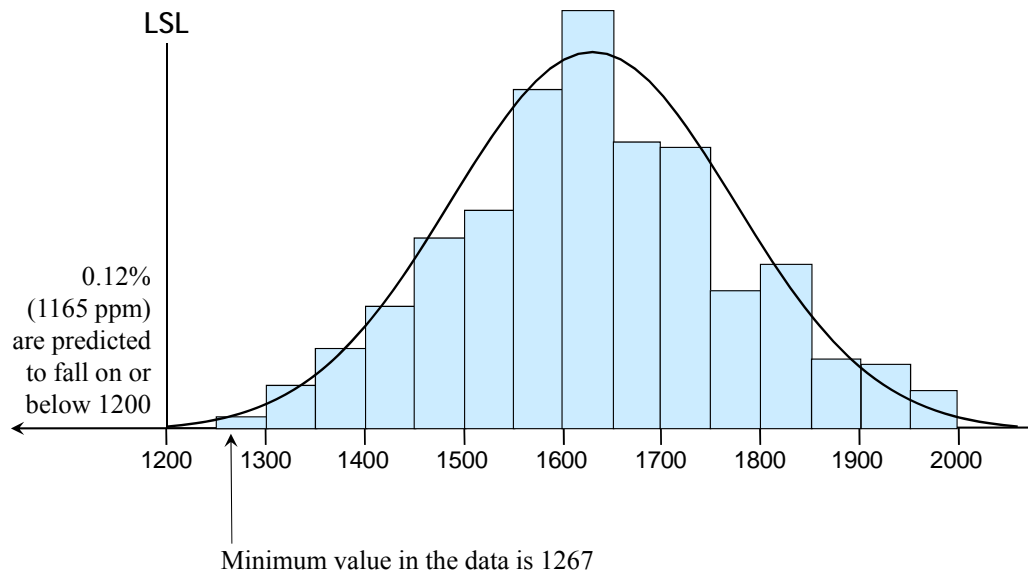


Continuous Y variable

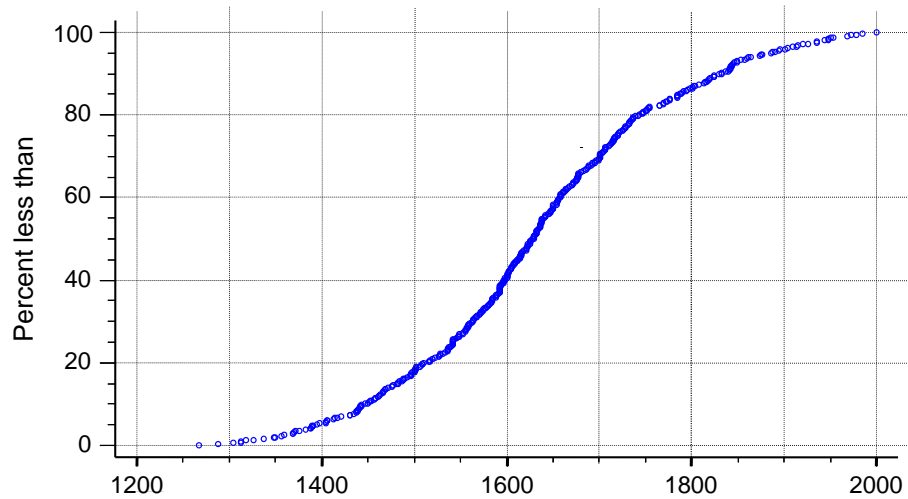
*Area under the curve to the right of  $y_3$*   
*= % of the population with  $Y > y_3$*



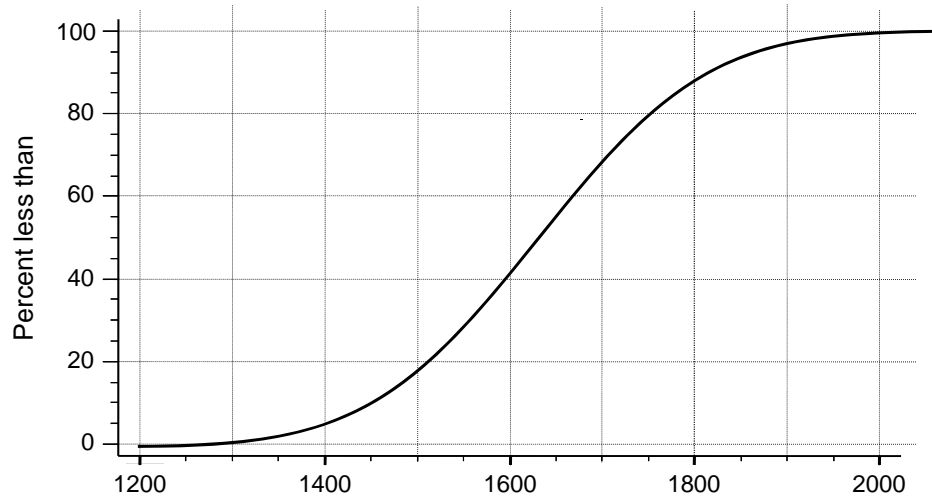
- The Normal curve depends only on  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  (population mean and std. dev.)
- Plug the sample mean and std. dev. into the formula in place of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$



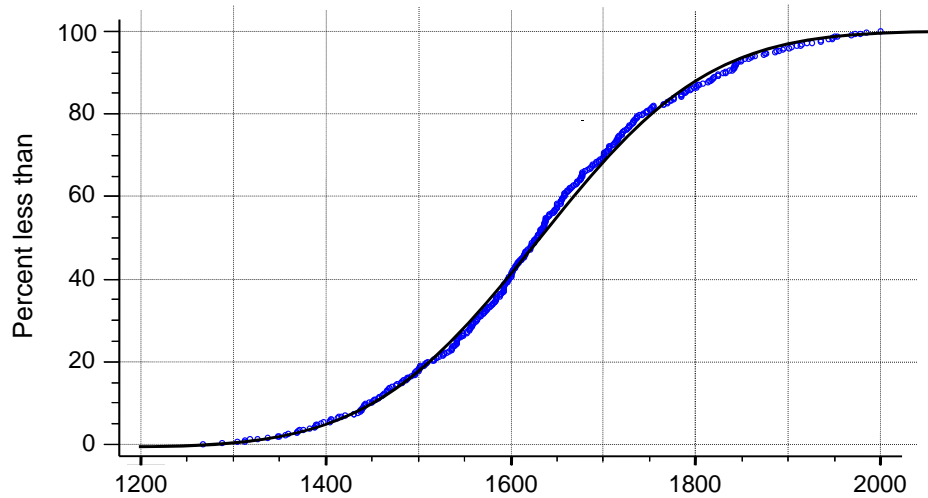
*Data CDF*



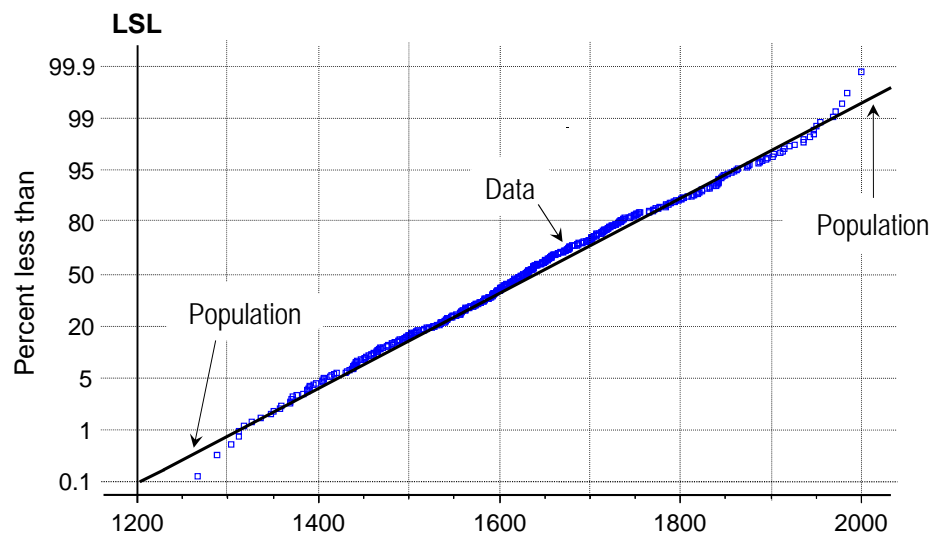
*Best fitting population CDF (assuming Normal)*



*Data and population CDFs should match*



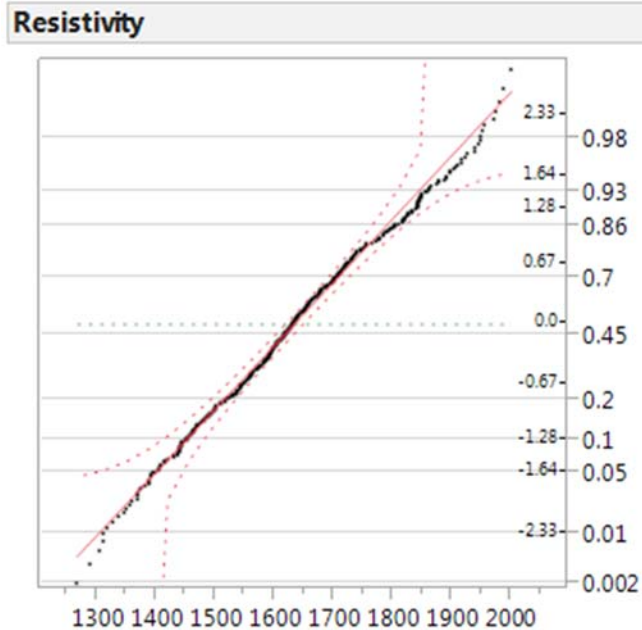
*CDFs plotted on a Normal distribution scale*



## JMP example: Normal data

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- Data table *DI water.jmp*  
Variable *Resistivity*
- Distribution → *Resistivity*  
red triangle → Normal  
Quantile Plot
- Fit is good — the points fall  
along the line and stay  
inside the hyperbolic band
- Leave the data table open

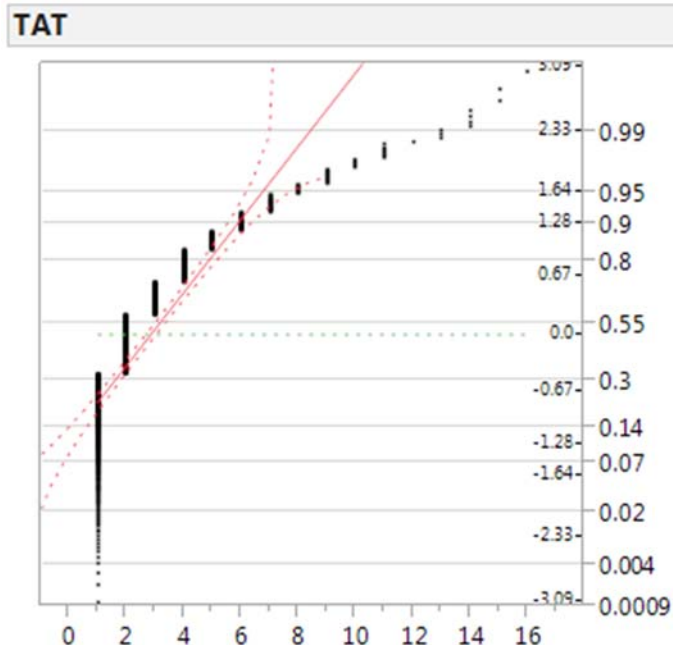


- To create images like this, use *Tools* → *Selection* to grab the portion of the output that you want, then copy and paste.

## JMP example: non-Normal data

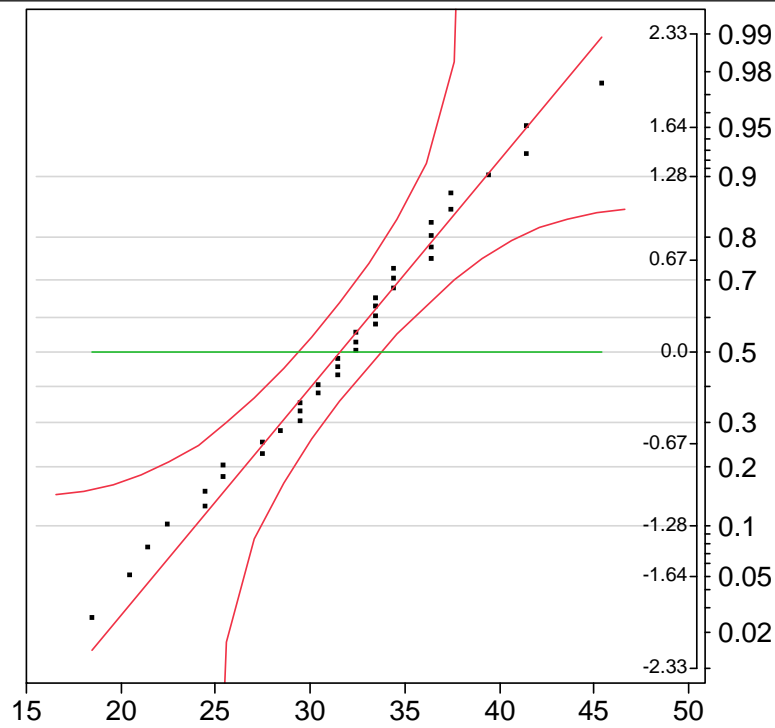
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- Data table *quotation process.jmp*, variable *TAT*
- Distribution → *TAT* red  
triangle → Normal  
Quantile Plot
- Fit is bad — the points  
do not fall along the  
line, and do not stay  
inside the hyperbolic  
bands
- Leave the data table  
open



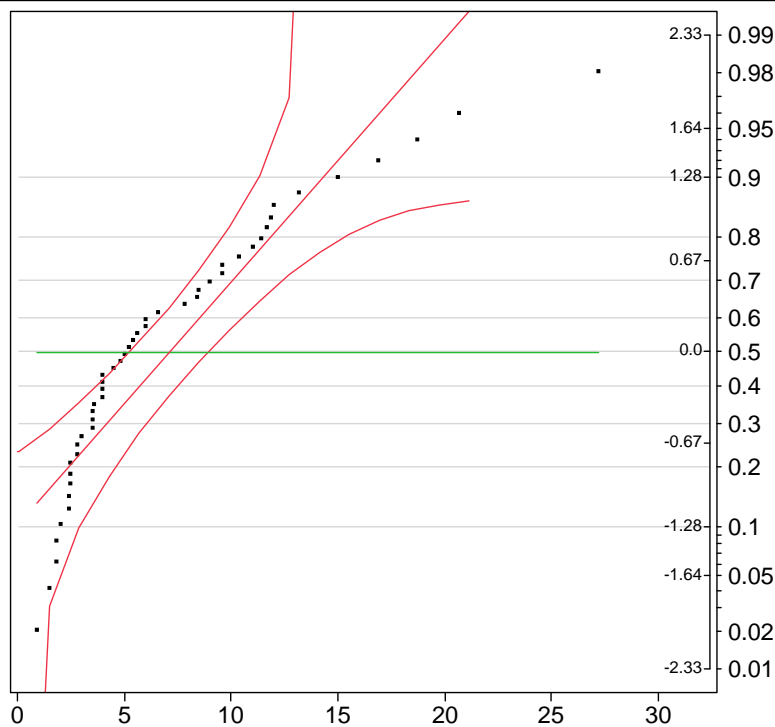
Is this data Normal?

49

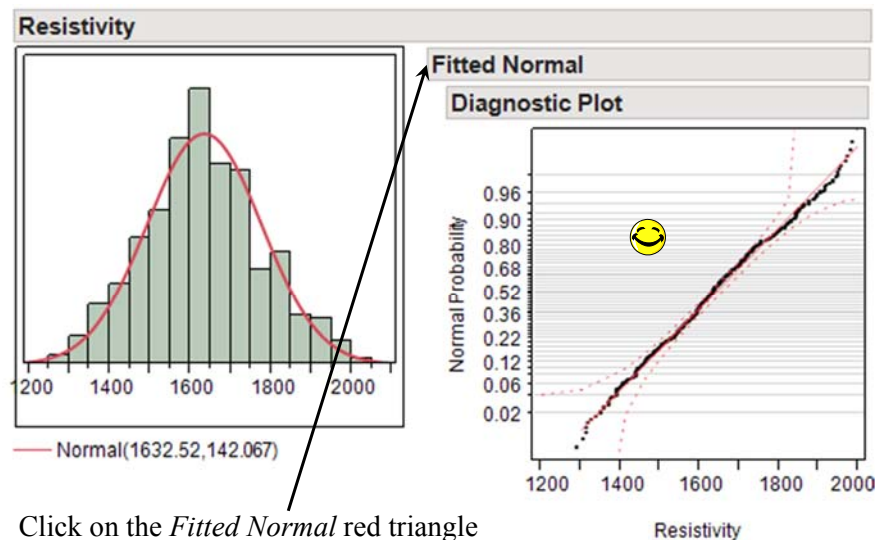
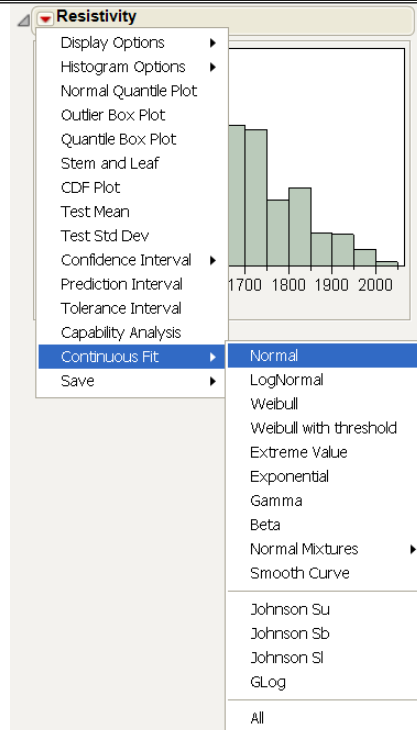


Is this data Normal?

50

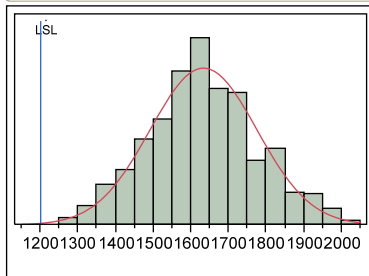


- Data table: *DI water.jmp*
- Analyze
  - Distribution
  - *Resistivity*
  - N should be 464
- Red triangle (no Alt key)
  - Continuous Fit
  - Normal



- Click on the *Fitted Normal* red triangle
- Select *Spec Limits*
  - Enter 1200 for *Lower Spec Limit*
  - OK

## Resistivity

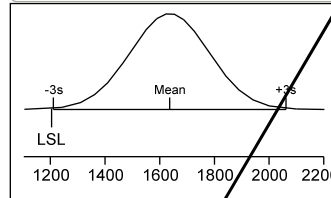


## Fitted Normal

## Capability Analysis

Specification	Value	Portion	% Actual
Lower Spec Limit	1200	Below LSL	0.0000
Spec Target	.	Above USL	.
Upper Spec Limit	.	Total Outside	0.0000

## Quantile Sigma



Capability	Index
CP	.
CPK	1.015
CPM	.
CPL	1.015
CPU	.

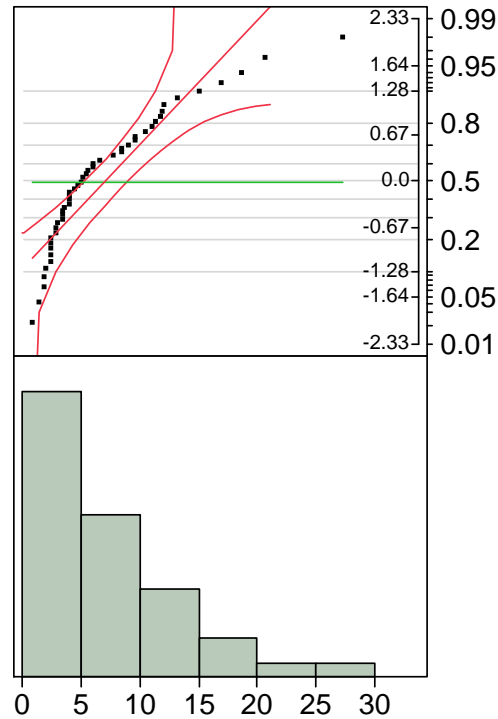
Portion	Percent	PPM
Below LSL	0.1165	1165.3025
Above USL	.	.
Total Outside	0.1165	1165.3025

- None of the measurements in the data set are less than 1200
- 0.12% (1165 ppm) are predicted to fall below 1200 in the population (future production)
- Save script, close and save data table

## Fitting and using the Lognormal distribution

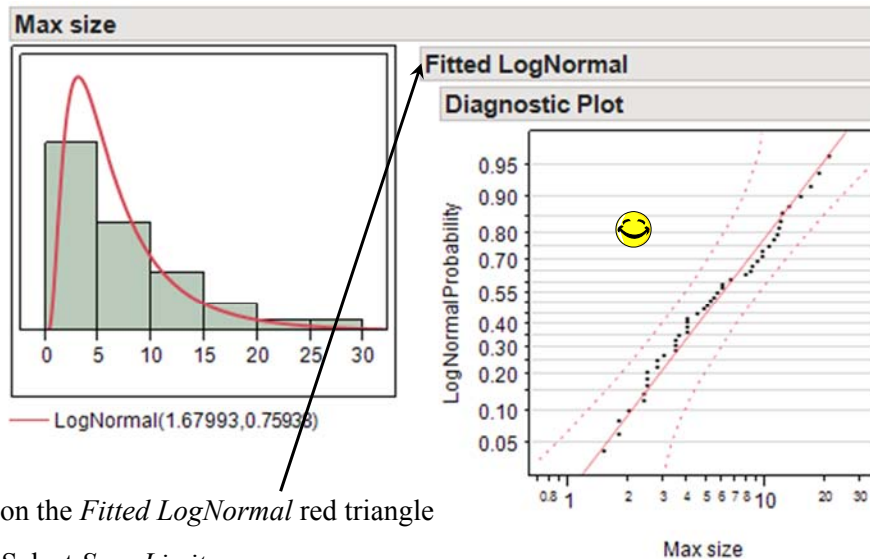
55

- Open *number & size of defects* (in JMP)
- Analyze → Distribution → *Max size*
- *Max size* is not Normal
- The *LogNormal* distribution is the most common alternative
- Red triangle → Continuous Fit → LogNormal



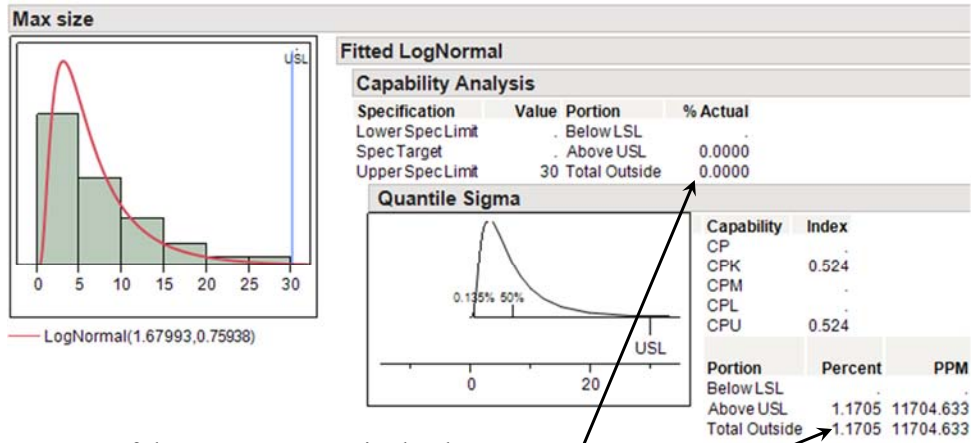
## Lognormal distribution (cont'd)

56



Click on the *Fitted LogNormal* red triangle

- Select *Spec Limits*
- Enter 30 for *Upper Spec Limit*
- OK



- None of the measurements in the data set are greater than 30
- 1.17% are predicted to exceed 30 in the population (future production)
- Save script, close and save data table

## Finding the best-fitting distribution(s)

59

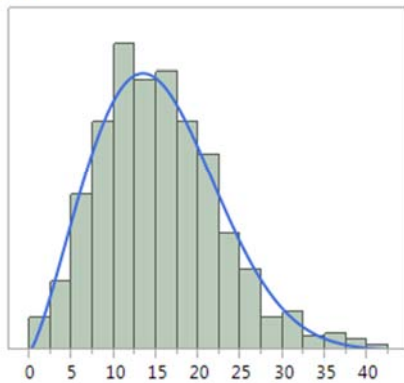
4/0 Cols	Aligner	X dev	Y dev	R dev
1	1	-17	4	17.464249197
2	2	-7	6	9.2195444573
3	3	-10	-21	23.259406699
4	2	0	-1	1
5	2	-10	5	11.180339887
6	2	-7	0	7
7	3	-14	-15	20.518284529
8	2	-3	-17	17.262676502
9	2	-8	3	8.5440037453
10	2	-7	-8	10.630145813
11	1	-11	-6	12.529964086
12	2	-6	0	6
13	2	-7	5	8.602325267
14	3	-10	-5	11.180339887
15	2	-3	1	3.1622776602
16	2	-8	4	8.94427191
17	3	-16	-12	20
18	3	-16	-15	21.931712199
19	1	-14	3	14.317821063
20	2	-8	-8	11.313708499
21	3	-23	-2	23.086792761
22	3	-19	-15	24.207436874
23	2	-7	9	11.401754251
24	2	-10	0	10
25	2	-9	-5	10.295630141
26	1	-8	-11	13.601470509
27	2	-8	-3	8.5440037453
28	3	-16	0	16
29	1	-13	-21	24.69817807
30	3	-8	-4	8.94427191

- Open *alignment process.jmp*
- Analyze → Distribution → *R dev*
- Remove:
  - ✓ Summary Statistics
  - ✓ Outlier Box Plot
- Red triangle → Continuous Fit → All
- See next slide

## Best-fitting distributions (cont'd)

60

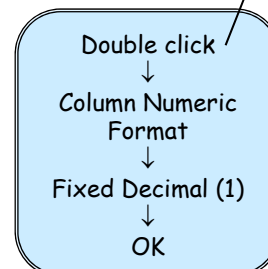
R dev



### Compare Distributions

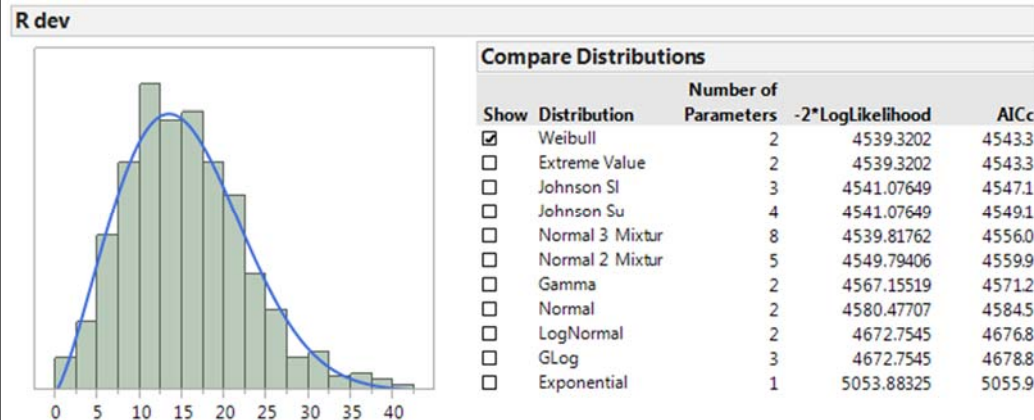
Show	Distribution	Number of Parameters	-2*LogLikelihood	AICc
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Weibull	2	4539.3202	4543.3
<input type="checkbox"/>	Extreme Value	2	4539.3202	4543.3
<input type="checkbox"/>	Johnson SI	3	4541.07649	4547.1
<input type="checkbox"/>	Johnson Su	4	4541.07649	4549.1
<input type="checkbox"/>	Normal 3 Mixtur	8	4539.81762	4556.0
<input type="checkbox"/>	Normal 2 Mixtur	5	4549.79406	4559.9
<input type="checkbox"/>	Gamma	2	4567.15519	4571.2
<input type="checkbox"/>	Normal	2	4580.47707	4584.5
<input type="checkbox"/>	LogNormal	2	4672.7545	4676.8
<input type="checkbox"/>	GLog	3	4672.7545	4678.8
<input type="checkbox"/>	Exponential	1	5053.88325	5055.9

- Distributions are ranked by AICc (“Akaike Information Criterion corrected” — will call it AIC from now on)
- AIC measures *lack* of fit → smaller values are better



## Best-fitting distributions (cont'd)

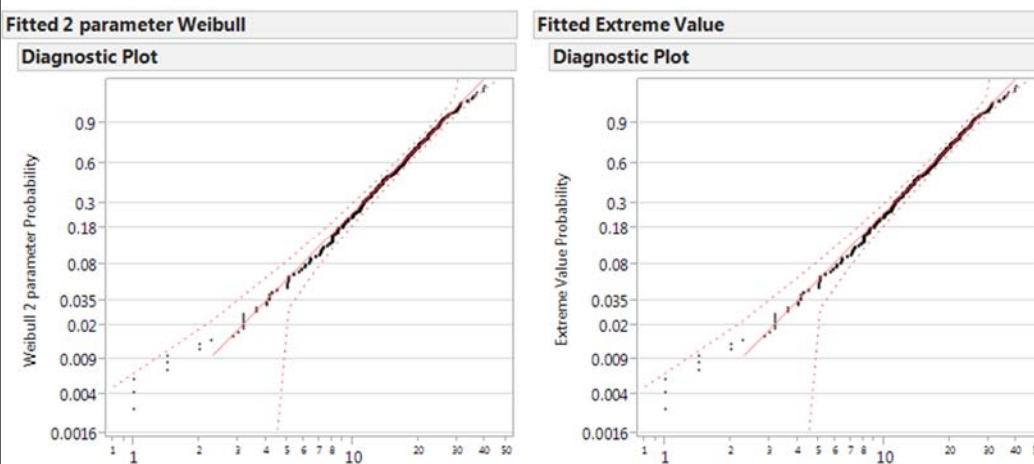
61



- Distributions with the same AIC (rounded to the nearest tenth) have the same lack of fit (equivalently, the same goodness of fit)
- In this example, the *Weibull* and *Extreme value* distributions are tied for best fit
- Distributions with equivalent goodness of fit may give different predictions
- If there are multiple best fitting distributions, give predictions for all of them

## Best-fitting distribution (cont'd)

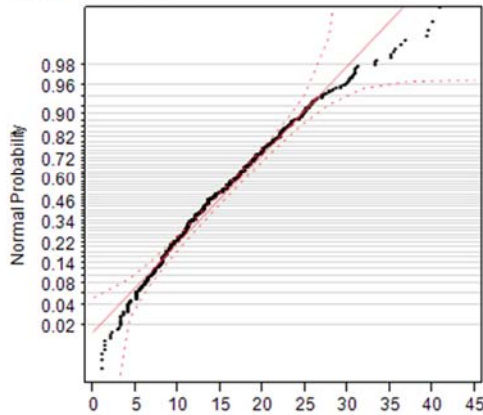
62



- The diagnostic plots for *Weibull* and *Extreme value* both look good
- Note that the plots are identical
- Fun fact: this always happens with these two distributions

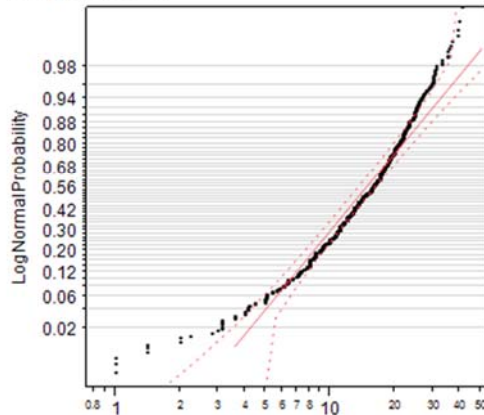
Fitted Normal

Diagnostic Plot



Fitted LogNormal

Diagnostic Plot



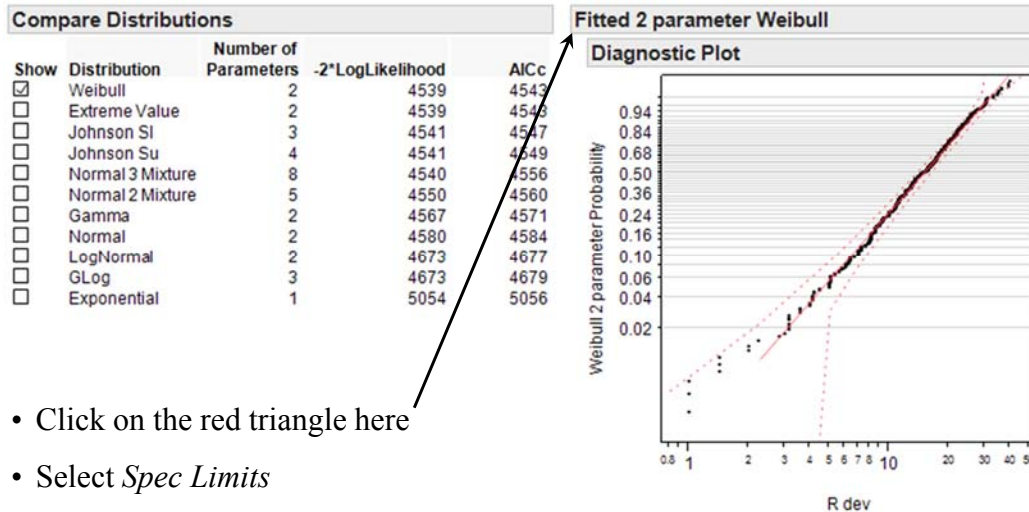
Examples of bad diagnostic plots (but by no means the worst)

- Regardless of AIC values, don't use distributions with bad diagnostic plots
- Regardless of AIC values, don't use distributions that predict 0 percent or PPM

## Using the best-fitting distributions: (a) Weibull

65

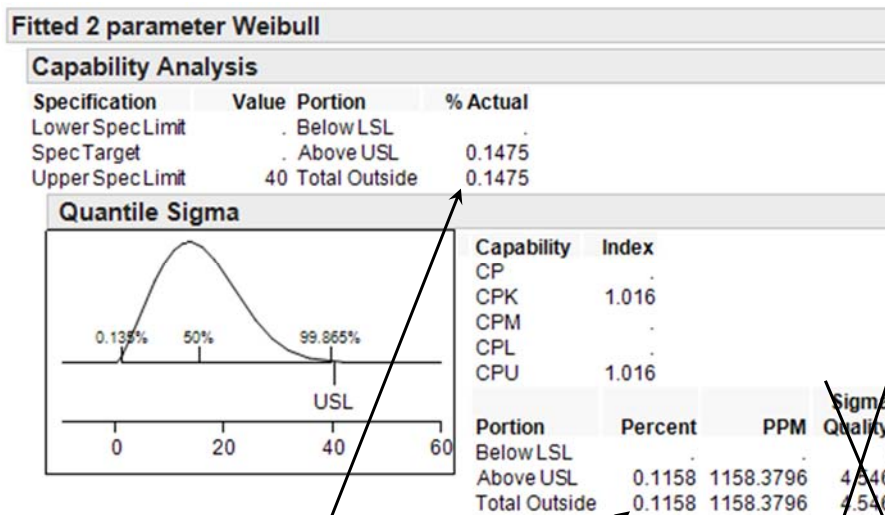
What % of future parts will have  $R dev > 40$ ?



- Click on the red triangle here
- Select *Spec Limits*
- Enter 40 for *Upper Spec Limit* → OK

## Weibull fit (cont'd)

66

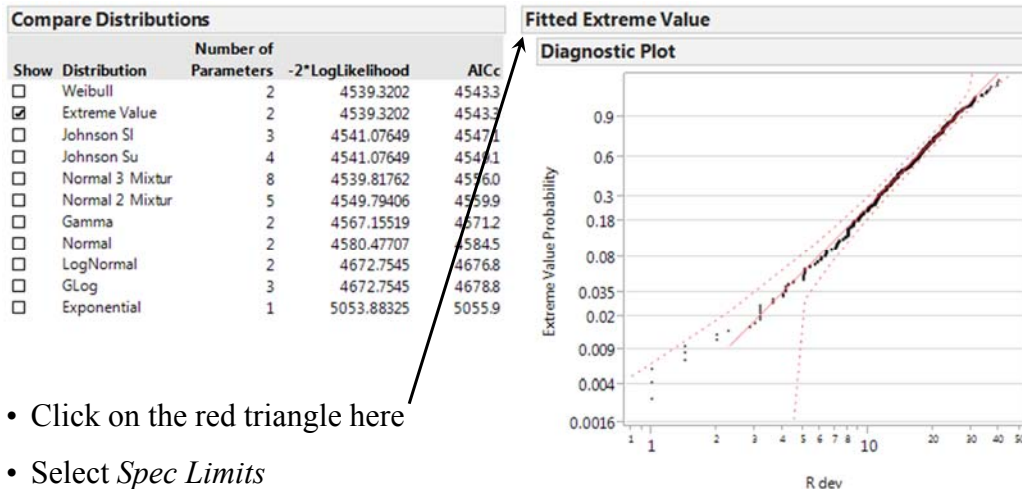


- 0.15% of the data values exceed 40
- 0.12% are predicted to exceed 40 in the population (future production)

## Using the best-fitting distributions: (b) Extreme value

67

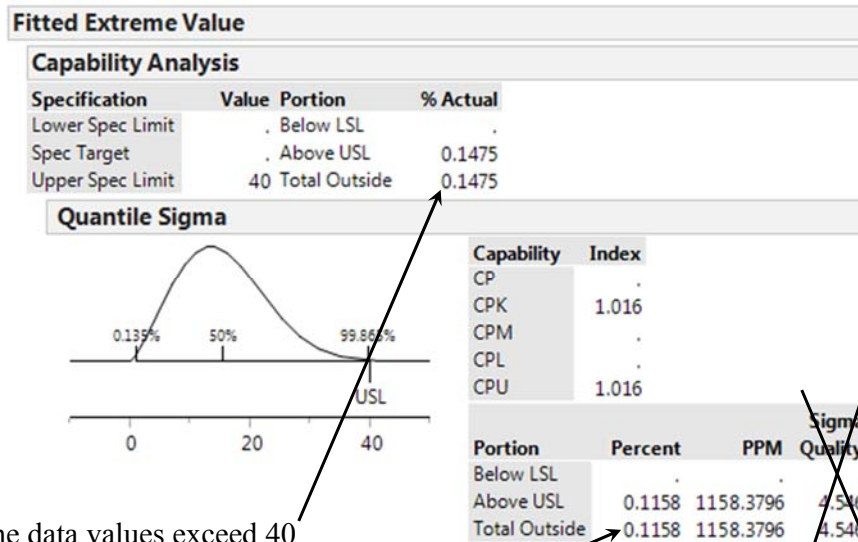
What % of future parts will have  $R dev > 40$ ?



- Click on the red triangle here
- Select *Spec Limits*
- Enter 40 for *Upper Spec Limit* → OK

## Extreme value fit (cont'd)

68



- 0.15% of the data values exceed 40
- 0.12% are predicted to exceed 40 in the population (future production)
- The results for *Weibull* and *Extreme Value* are identical (always happens with these two distributions)

### Exercise 3.1

69

Answer both questions in each case below. For the second question, find the best fitting distribution(s) and use it (them) to find answer(s). Save the analysis scripts, close and save the data tables.

- a) Data table *quotation process*, variable *TAT*. What % of RFQs in the data set have  $TAT > 15$ ? What % (or PPM) of future RFQs will have  $TAT > 15$ ?
  
- b) Data set *solution properties*, variable *SG coded*. What % of solution vials in the data set have *SG coded*  $> 50$ ? What % of future solution vials (or PPM) will have *SG coded*  $> 50$ ?

### Exercise 3.1 (cont'd)

70

- c) Data table *number and size of defects*, variable *# Defects*. What % of castings in the data set have more than 50 defects? What % of future castings (or PPM) will have more than 50 defects?
  
- d) Data table *casting dimensions*, variable *Length*. What % of castings in the data set have length outside the interval [598, 602]? What % of future castings (or PPM) will have lengths outside this interval?

### Exercise 3.1 (cont'd)

71

- e) Data table *casting dimensions*, variable *Diam*. What % of castings in the data set have diameters outside the interval  $[49, 51]$ ? What % of future castings (or PPM) will have diameters outside this interval?

### Notes

72

Life = elapsed time until the occurrence of some event

- Failure of an item on test
- Planned end of test
- Unplanned end of test
- Failure of an item in service
- Scheduled downtime

Definitions of “time”

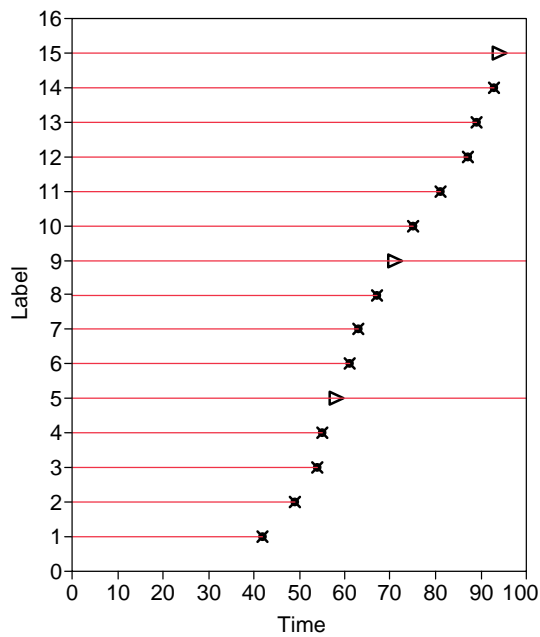
- Seconds, minutes, hours
- Days, weeks, months
- Usage cycles, number of moves, distance

Usually there is one event of primary interest

- Usually, failure of an item

Other events may preempt the event of primary interest

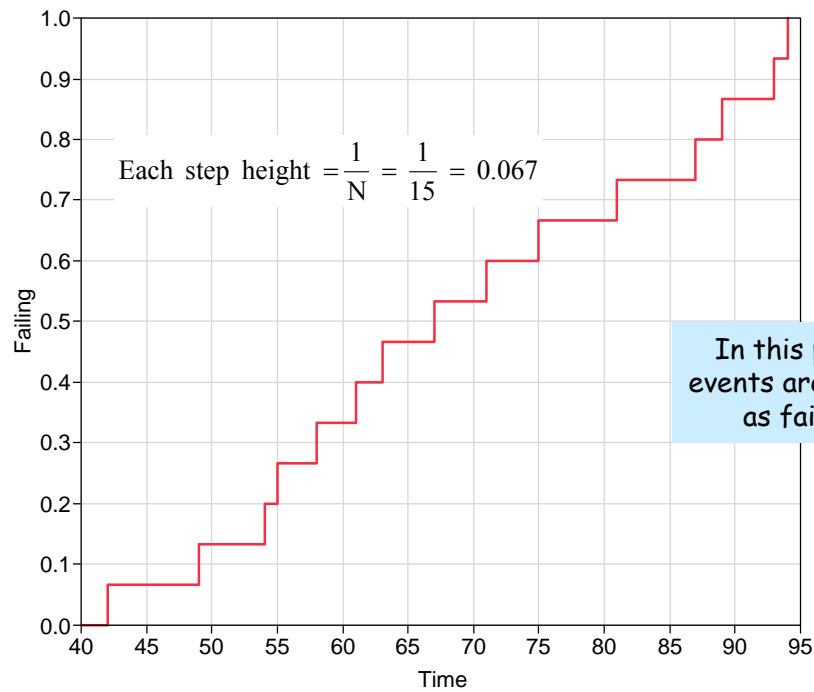
- Planned end of test
- Unplanned end of test
- These are called “suspensions”
- We say that the time to failure is “censored”



- 15 items were tested
- 12 failures (x)
- 3 suspensions (▷.....)
- This “event plot” distinguishes suspensions from failures and shows the event times
- If we don’t distinguish suspensions from failures, the calculated failure probabilities will be biased upwards
- This will make our reliability look worse than it really is

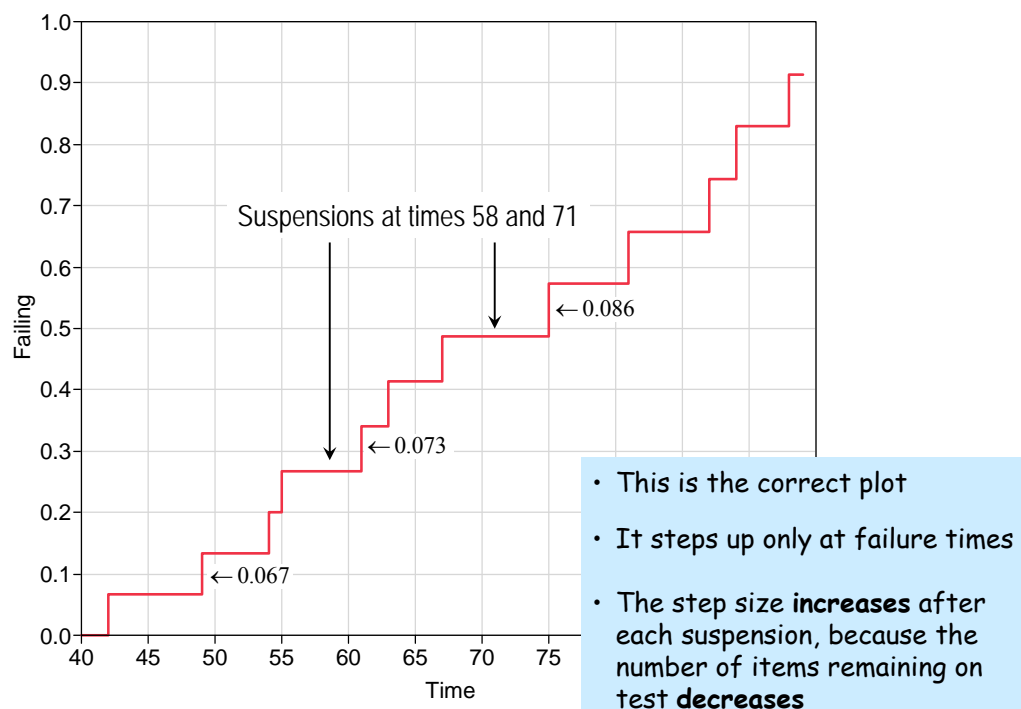
## Cumulative distribution function (CDF)

77



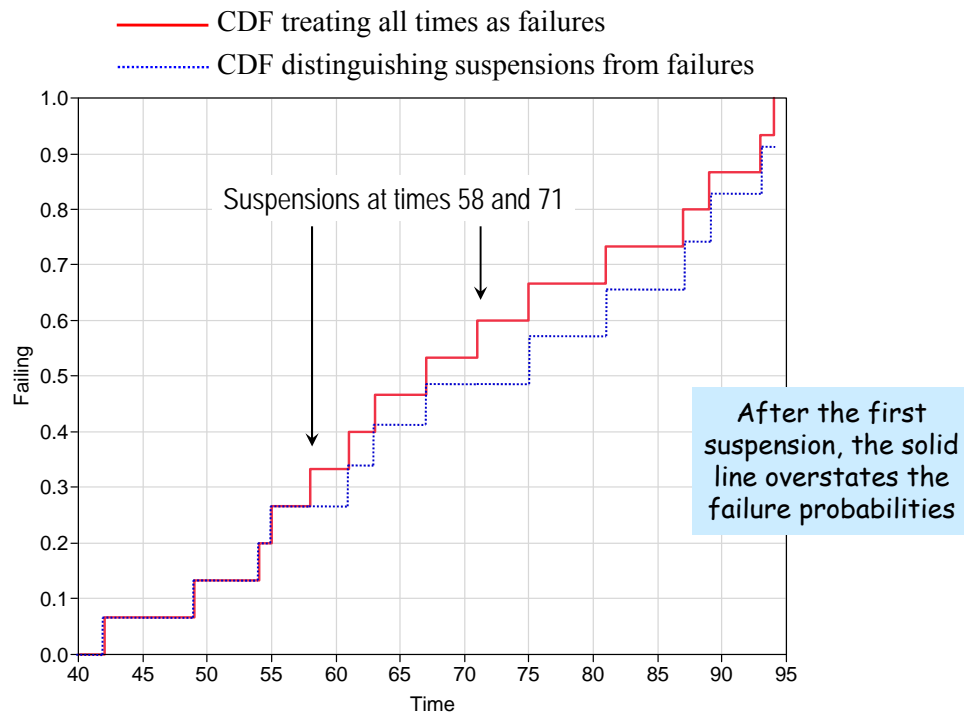
## CDF distinguishing suspensions from failures

78



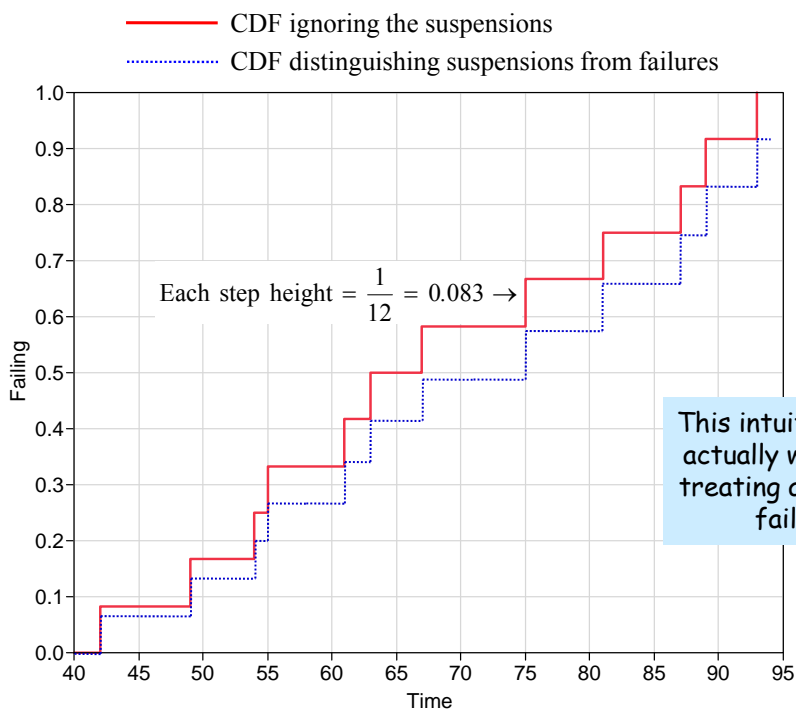
## Overlay of CDFs

79



## Can't we just ignore the suspensions?

80



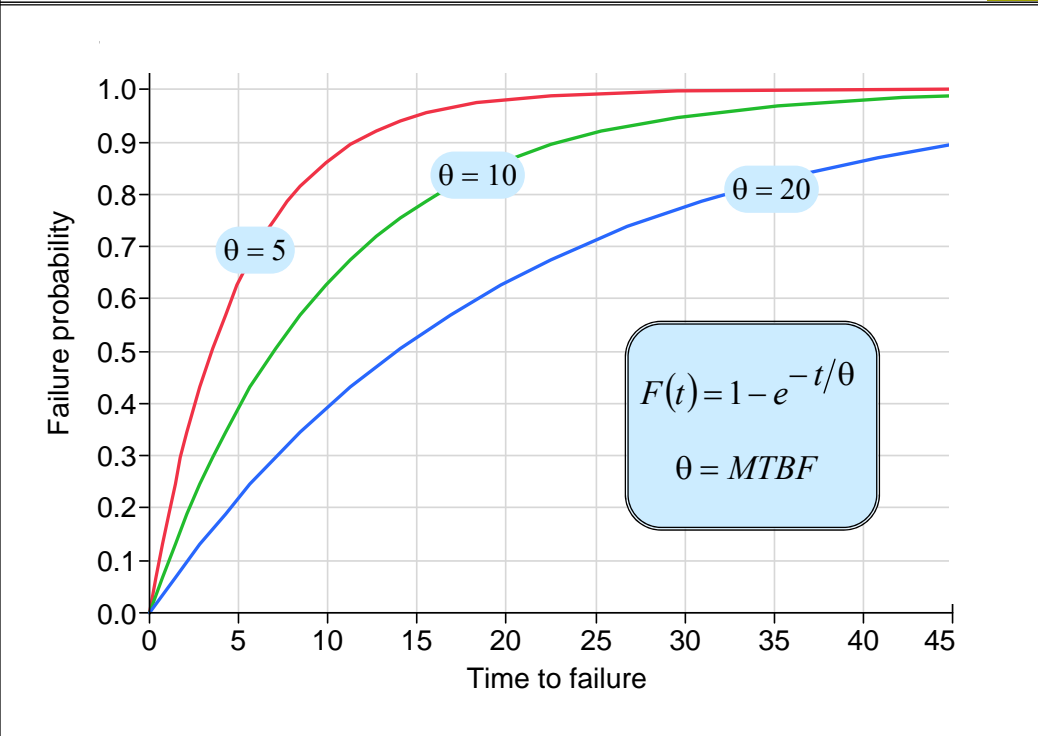
## 5 Analyzing Life Data

81

- The Exponential distribution
- The Weibull distribution
- Fitting life distributions in JMP
- Finding and using the best fitting life distribution

Notes

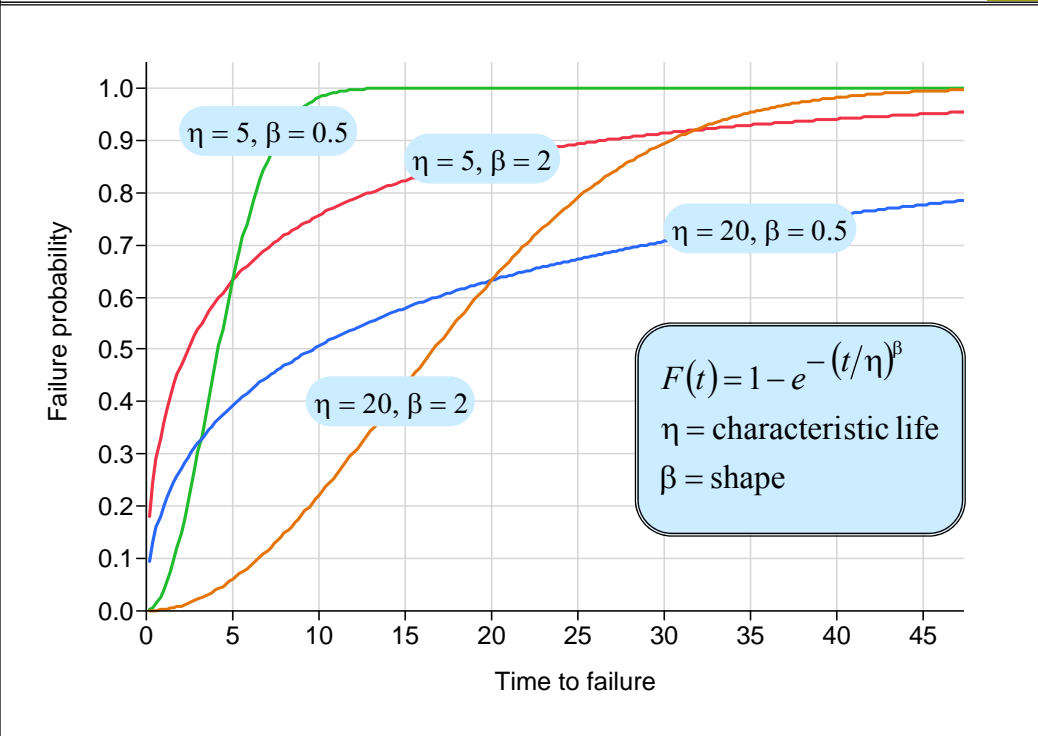
82



The Exponential distribution is the simplest life distribution. It has only one parameter: the mean time between/before failure (MTBF). The Greek letter  $\theta$  (theta) is often used to denote the population value of the MTBF.

Shown above are the *failure functions*  $F(t)$  for three different Exponential distributions.  $F(t)$  is the probability that an item will fail before time  $t$ .

The *reliability function* is defined as  $R(t) = 1 - F(t)$ .  $R(t)$  is the probability that an item will survive beyond time  $t$ . The Exponential reliability function is given by  $R(t) = \exp(-t/\theta)$ .



The Weibull distribution was introduced to the reliability engineering community in the 1950s by a man named Waloddi Weibull. (What were his parents thinking?) Prior to that, most reliability work was based on the Exponential distribution. Due to its greater flexibility, the Weibull has become one of the most widely-used life distributions.

The Weibull distribution has two parameters: the *characteristic life*  $\eta$  (eta), and the *shape*  $\beta$  (beta). The characteristic life ( $\eta$ ) has the same qualitative interpretation as the MTBF ( $\theta$ ). The shape parameter ( $\beta$ ) determines which of two distinct failure modes are represented. When  $\beta < 1$ , we have a *burn-in* or *infant-mortality* failure mode. When  $\beta > 1$ , we have a *wear-out* failure mode. A Weibull distribution with  $\beta = 1$  is identical to an Exponential distribution with  $\theta = \eta$ .

Shown above are failure functions  $F(t)$  for four different Weibull distributions.  $F(t)$  is the probability that an item will fail before time  $t$ .

The Weibull reliability function (probability that an item will survive beyond time  $t$ ) is given by  $R(t) = \exp[-(t/\eta)^\beta]$ .

## Fitting life distributions in JMP

87

Open data table *failures and suspensions*

failures and suspensions - JMP

	Time	Suspension
1	42	0
2	49	0
3	54	0
4	55	0
5	58	1
6	61	
7	63	
8	67	
9	71	
10	75	
11	81	
12	87	
13	89	
14	93	
15	94	

Analyze  
↓  
Reliability and Survival  
↓  
Life Distribution  
↓  
Set up as shown below  
↓  
OK

Life Distribution - JMP

Select Columns

☒ Time  
☒ Suspension

Censor Code

Select Confidence Interval Method  
Wald

Cast Selected Columns into Roles

Y, Time to Event   
optional numeric

Censor   
optional

Failure Cause

Freq

Label

By

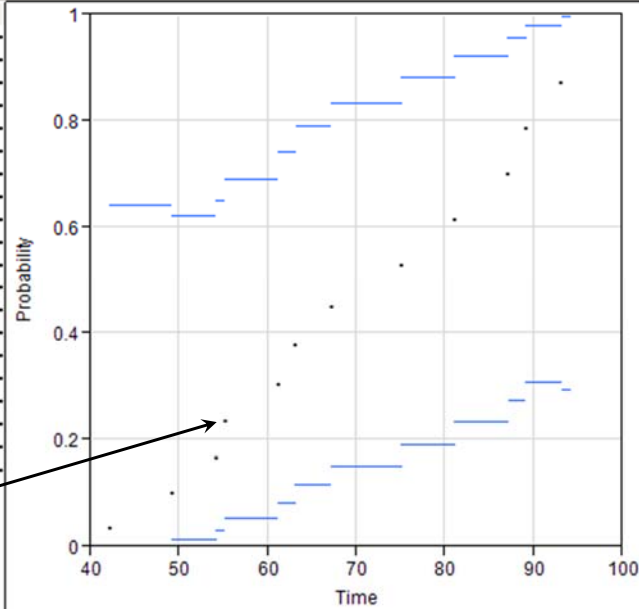
## Fitting life distributions (cont'd)

88

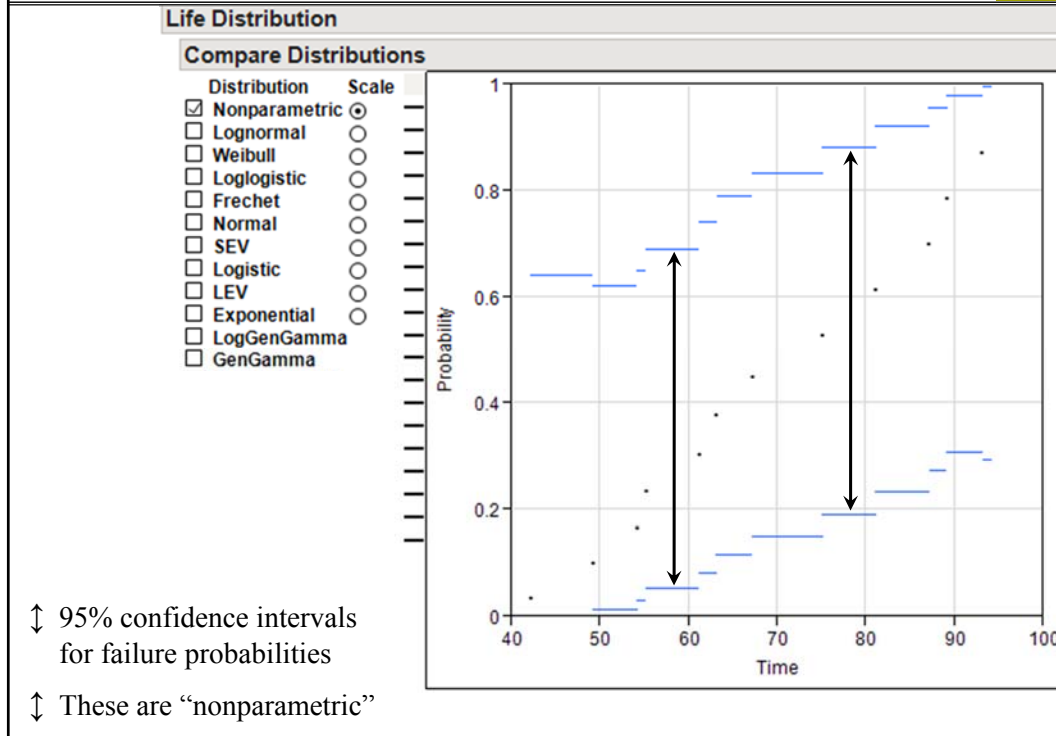
### Life Distribution

#### Compare Distributions

- | Distribution                                      | Scale                            |
|---|----------------------------------|
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Nonparametric | <input checked="" type="radio"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Lognormal                | <input type="radio"/>            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Weibull                  | <input type="radio"/>            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Loglogistic              | <input type="radio"/>            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Frechet                  | <input type="radio"/>            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Normal                   | <input type="radio"/>            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> SEV                      | <input type="radio"/>            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Logistic                 | <input type="radio"/>            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> LEV                      | <input type="radio"/>            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Exponential              | <input type="radio"/>            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> LogGenGamma              | <input type="radio"/>            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> GenGamma                 | <input type="radio"/>            |



- CDF that distinguishes suspensions from failures
- Shows the corners of the steps but not the “staircase”



## Notes

This analysis is referred to as *nonparametric*, meaning that it is not based on a statistical model (such as the ones listed on the left.) This is a good thing, because statistical models can be wrong. However, there are drawbacks:

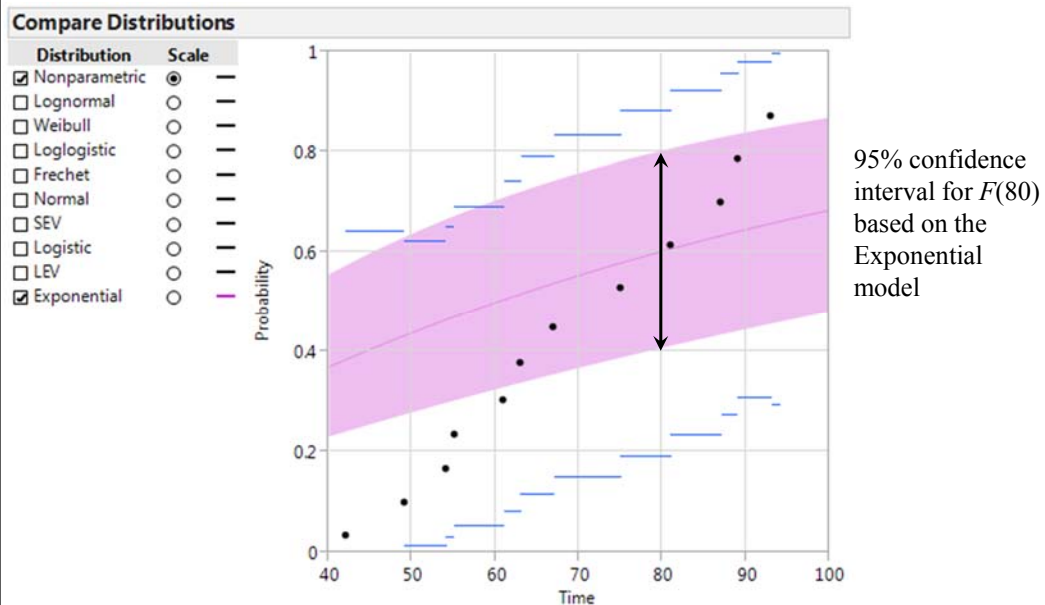
- The nonparametric CDF is discontinuous.
- Large numbers of failures are required to get margins of error small enough to be useful.

In practice, it is preferable to use a statistical model that fits the data well. This provides a continuous estimate of the failure function and smaller margins of error.

You can change the confidence level by selecting *Change Confidence Level* on the menu produced by the red triangle next to *Life Distribution*.

## Exponential fit — linear probability scale

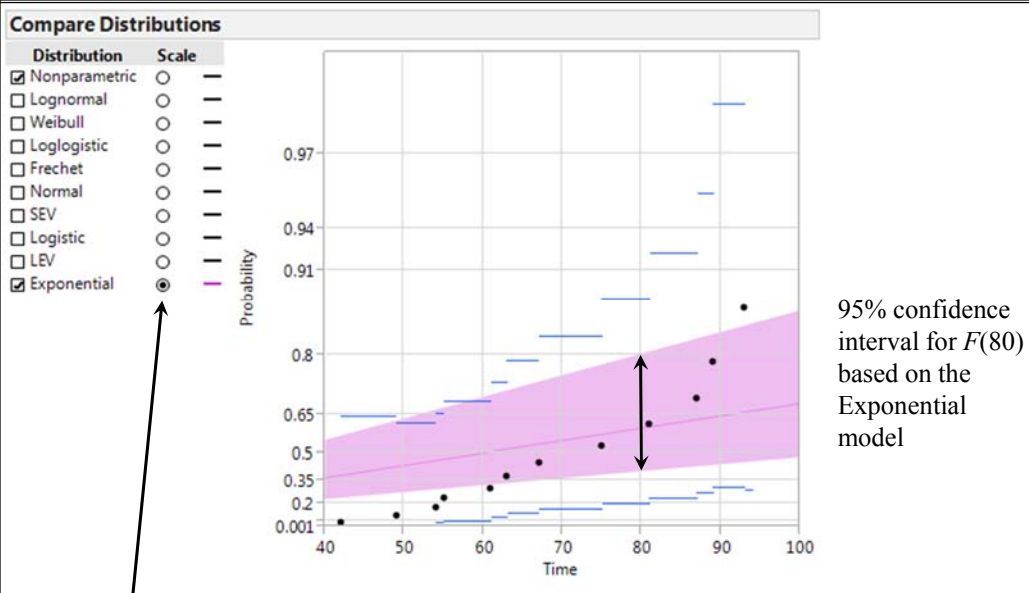
91



Bad fit — the Exponential failure curve doesn't match the data

## Exponential fit — Exponential probability scale

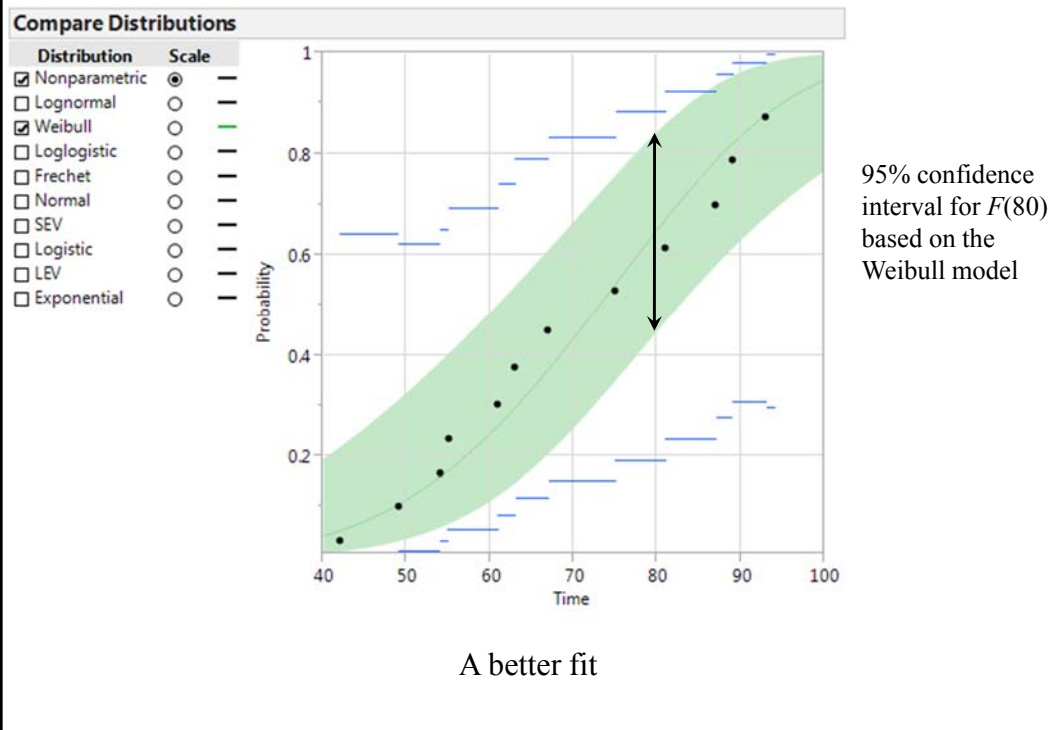
92



The *Scale* button modifies the vertical axis so that the failure curve for the chosen distribution plots as a straight line

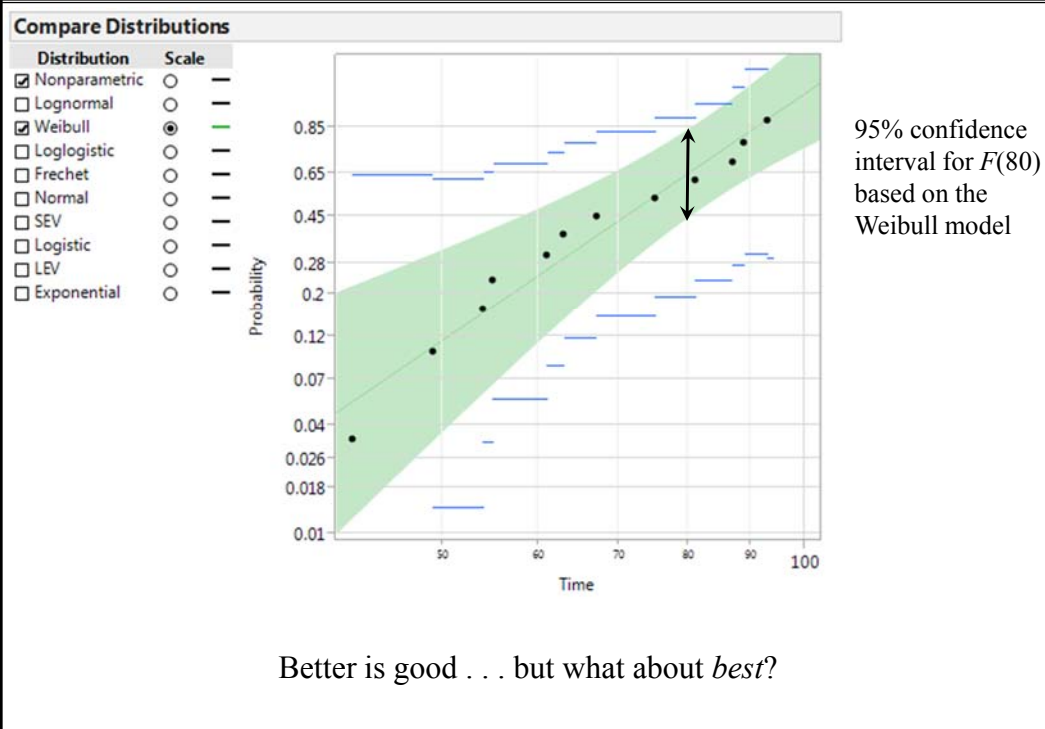
## Weibull fit — linear probability scale

93



## Weibull fit — Weibull probability scale

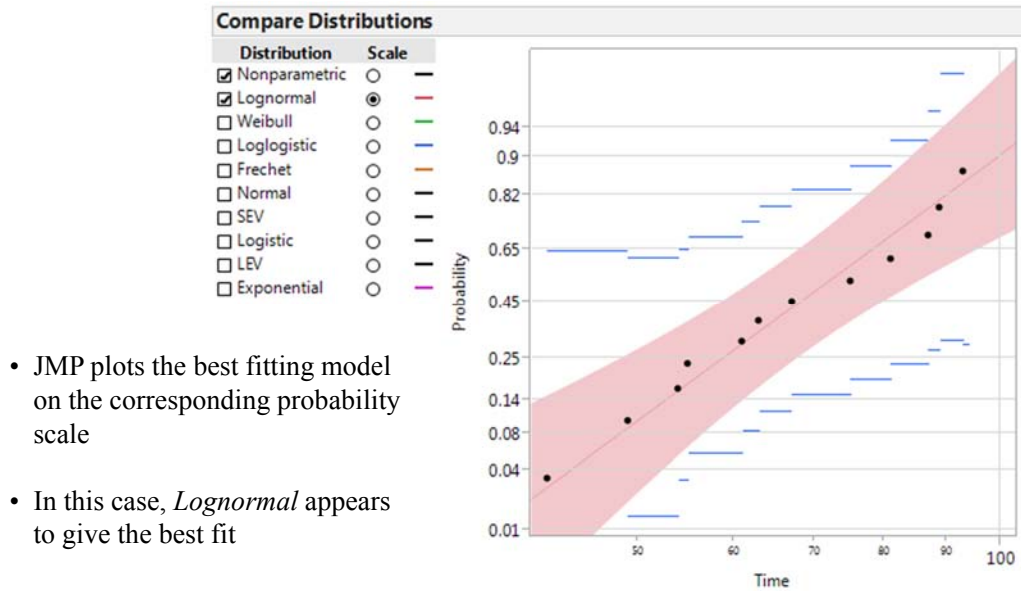
94



## Finding and using the best fitting distribution

95

Click the *Life Distribution* red triangle → Fit All Nonnegative



- JMP plots the best fitting model on the corresponding probability scale
- In this case, *Lognormal* appears to give the best fit

\*You can't have a negative time to failure!

## Best fitting distribution (cont'd)

96

**Statistics**

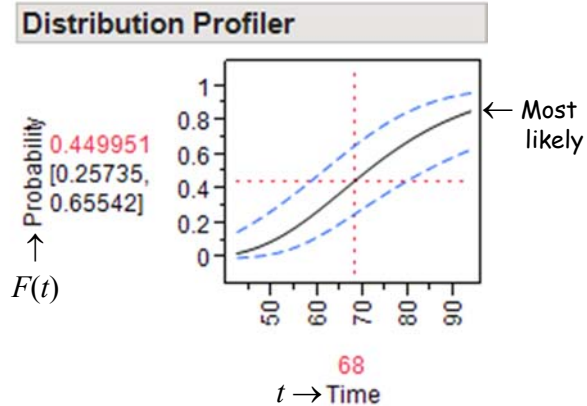
Model Comparisons			
Distribution	AICc	-2Loglikelihood	BIC
Lognormal	112.6	107.57926	112.99536
Weibull	112.8	107.81732	113.23342
Loglogistic	113.3	108.33193	113.74804
Frechet	113.8	108.75681	114.17291
Exponential	133.4	131.06658	133.77463

- As before, models are ranked by AIC (smaller is better)
- As before, round the AIC values to the nearest tenth
- *Lognormal* gives the best fit

## The distribution profiler

97

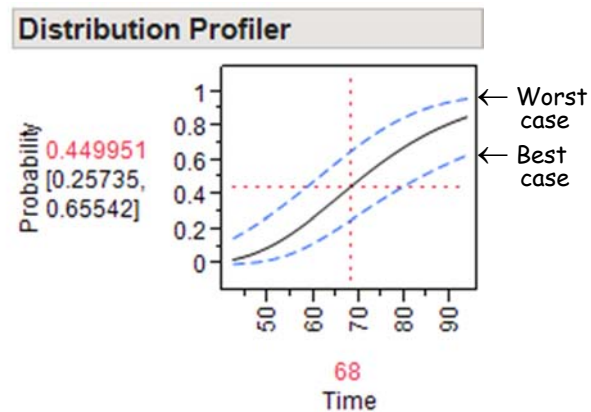
- Plots the probability  $F(t)$  that an item from this population will fail at or before time  $t$
- The solid curve is the *most likely* value of  $F(t)$
- For example, the most likely value of  $F(68)$  is 0.45 (45%) (shown in red on the left side of the profiler)
- The corresponding *reliability*  $R(t)$  is defined as  $1 - F(t)$
- $R(t)$  is the probability that an item from this population will not fail until *after* time  $t$
- For example,  $R(68) = 0.55$  (55%)



## Distribution profiler (cont'd)

98

- The dashed curves give 95% confidence intervals for  $F(t)$
- The upper dashed curve gives the *worst case* value of  $F(t)$ \*
- For example, the worst case value of  $F(68)$  is 0.655 (65.5%)
- The lower dashed curve gives the *best case* value of  $F(t)$ \*\*
- For example, the best case value of  $F(68) = 0.275$  (27.5%)

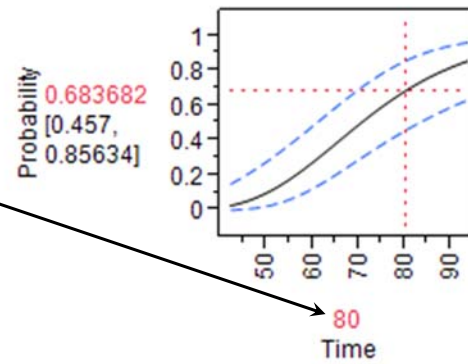


\*For Engineering.

\*\*For Sales.

- Suppose we are interested in  $F(80)$
- Change the value 68 to 80 (click and edit)
- The most likely value of  $F(80)$  is 68.4%
- The worst case value of  $F(t)$  is 85.6%
- The best case value of  $F(80)$  is 45.7%

Distribution Profiler



## Exercise 5.1

101

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ print life* (in JMP). The “time” to failure is *Pages*.

- a) Identify the best fitting non-negative distribution(s). Use that (those) distribution(s) to answer the following questions.
- b) What is the most likely value of  $F(10,000)$ ?
- c) With 95% confidence, what is the worst-case value of  $F(10,000)$ ?
- d) Save the analysis script, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 5.2

102

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ probe reliability* (in JMP). The “time” to failure is *Hits*.

- a) Identify the best fitting non-negative distribution(s). Use that (those) distribution(s) to answer the following questions.
- b) What is the most likely value of  $F(200)$ ?
- c) With 95% confidence, what is the worst-case value of  $F(200)$ ?
- d) Save the analysis script, close and save the data table.

### Exercise 5.3

103

Open *LSSV2 data sets \field reliability* (in JMP). The time to failure is *Calendar Days*.

- a) Identify the best fitting non-negative distribution(s). Use that (those) distribution(s) to answer the following questions.
- b) What is the most likely value of  $F(365)$ ?
- c) With 95% confidence, what is the worst-case value of  $F(365)$ ?
- d) Save the analysis script, close and save the data table.

Notes

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## 6 Categorical MSA Without Standards

105

- It is preferable to base nominal MSA on a set of items whose true status is known (standards)
- With standards, we can determine the probabilities of passing bad items and failing good ones
- Creating standards can be difficult and time consuming
- Lacking standards, “% agreement within and between appraisers” can serve as a proxy for “% agreement with standard”

### Example 1

106

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ pass-fail no stds* (in JMP)

msa pass-fail no stds						
Notes C:\Documents and Se	Session	Part	Insp A	Insp B	Insp C	
	1	1	P	P	P	
	2	2	P	P	P	
	3	3	P	P	P	
	4	1	P	P	P	
	5	2	P	P	P	
	6	3	P	P	P	
	7	1	F	F	F	
	8	2	F	F	F	
	9	3	F	F	F	
	10	1	F	F	F	
	11	2	F	F	F	
	12	3	F	F	F	
	13	1	F	F	F	
	14	2	F	F	F	
	15	3	F	F	F	
	16	1	P	P	P	
	17	2	P	P	P	
	18	3	F	F	F	
	19	1	P	P	P	
	20	2	P	P	P	
	21	3	P	P	P	
	22	1	P	P	P	
	23	2	P	P	P	
	24	3	P	P	P	
	25	1	F	F	F	
	26	2	F	F	F	
	27	3	F	F	F	
	28	1	P	P	P	

Columns (5/0)

Session

Part

Insp A

Insp B

Insp C

Rows

All rows 150

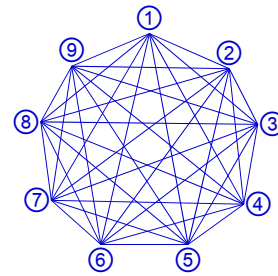
- 50 parts
- Appraisers A, B, C
- 3 inspections per part per appraiser
- *Part* is actually nominal, but it won't affect the analysis if you leave it as continuous

## Agreement within & between appraisers

107

	Session	Part	Insp A	Insp B	Insp C
1	1	1	P	P	P
2	2	1	P	P	P
3	3	1	P	P	P
4	1	2	P	P	P
5	2	2	P	P	P
6	3	2	P	P	P
7	1	3	F	F	F
8	2	3	F	F	F
9	3	3	F	F	F
10	1	4	F	F	F
11	2	4	F	F	F
12	3	4	F	F	F
13	1	5	F	F	F
14	2	5	F	F	F
15	3	5	F	F	F
16	1	6	P	P	P
17	2	6	P	P	F
18	3	6	F	F	F
19	1	7	P	P	P
20	2	7	P	P	F
21	3	7	P	P	P
22	1	8	P	P	P
23	2	8	P	P	P
24	3	8	P	P	P
25	1	9	F	F	F
26	2	9	F	F	F
27	3	9	F	F	F
28	1	10	P	P	P
29	2	10	P	P	P
30	3	10	P	P	P
31	1	11	P	P	P
32	2	11	P	P	P
33	3	11	P	P	P
34	1	12	F	F	F
35	2	12	F	F	P
36	3	12	F	F	F

- 100% agreement



- 36 opportunities for pairwise agreement
- 16 pairwise agreements
- Agreement =  $16/36 = 0.444$

- 36 opportunities for pairwise agreement
- 8 pairwise disagreements
- Agreement =  $28/36 = 0.778$

## Analyzing a categorical MSA without standards

108

*Analyze → Quality and Process → Variability / Attribute Gauge Chart*

Select Columns

- Session
- Part
- Insp A
- Insp B
- Insp C

Chart Type

Attribute

Cast Selected Columns into Roles

Y,Response Insp A  
Insp B  
Insp C  
*optional*

Standard *optional*

X,Grouping Part  
*optional*

Freq *optional numeric*

By *optional*

Enter Raters as separate columns

Action

OK

Cancel

Remove

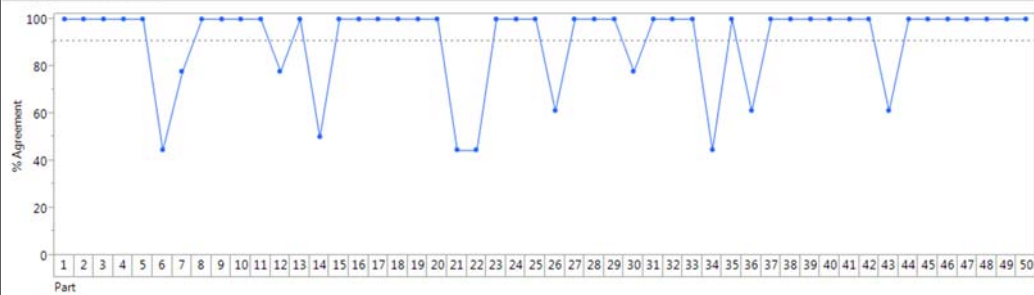
Recall

Help

## Agreement report

109

Gauge Attribute Chart

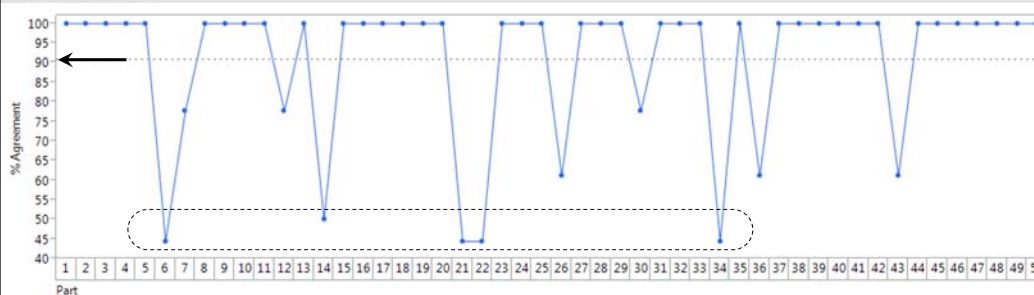


- Plot of the agreement percentages for the items in the study
- It is helpful to rescale the vertical axis
- See next slide

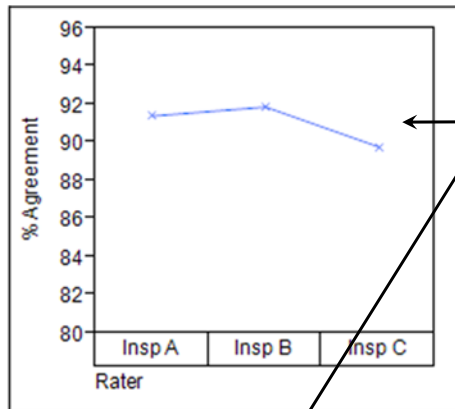
## Agreement report (cont'd)

110

Gauge Attribute Chart



- The horizontal dotted line marks the "agreement grand mean"
- In this example, the agreement grand mean is a little over 90
- Nowhere in the report is this number printed — bad JMP!
- If the agreement grand mean is too low, follow-up should focus on the items with the lowest % agreement
- There are no recognized standards for the agreement grand mean. A lower bound of 95% is fairly common. 99% is often used in applications involving safety.



- These are the agreement percentages for each appraiser
- The appraiser with the lowest percentage represents the greatest opportunity for improvement
- Sometimes the smallest % agreement among the appraisers is used as the metric

— Agreement between & within raters

## Agreement Report

Rater	% Agreement	95%	
		Lower CI	Upper CI
Insp A	91.4286	89.5082	93.0248
Insp B	91.9048	90.0502	93.4388
Insp C	89.8095	87.6057	91.6588

Number Inspected	Number Matched	% Agreement	Lower CI
50	39	78.000	64.758

- Percentage of items for which agreement was 100%
- This should not be used as a metric

Save the script, close and save the data table.

## Example 2

113

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ application rating no stds* (in JMP)

Application	Session	Appraiser	Rating
1	1	1 Simpson	5
2	1	1 Montgomery	5
3	1	1 Holmes	5
4	1	1 Duncan	4
5	1	1 Hayes	5
6	2	1 Simpson	2
7	2	1 Montgomery	2
8	2	1 Holmes	2
9	2	1 Duncan	1
10	2	1 Hayes	2
11	3	1 Simpson	4
12	3	1 Montgomery	3
13	3	1 Holmes	3
14	3	1 Duncan	3
15	3	1 Hayes	3
16	4	1 Simpson	1
17	4	1 Montgomery	1
18	4	1 Holmes	1
19	4	1 Duncan	1
20	4	1 Hayes	1
21	5	1 Simpson	3
22	5	1 Montgomery	3
23	5	1 Holmes	3
24	5	1 Duncan	2
25	5	1 Hayes	3
26	6	1 Simpson	4
27	6	1 Montgomery	4

- 15 employment applications
- 5 appraisers
- 2 inspections per application per appraiser
- Five point scale, higher is better
- Change *Rating* to nominal
- This is the wrong data format for categorical MSA!

## Unstacking a data table

114

*Tables → Split*

**Split - JMP**

Unstacks multiple rows for each 'Split Column' into multiple columns as identified by a 'Split By' column.

**Select Columns**

☒ Application  
☒ Session  
☒ Appraiser  
☒ Rating

**Remaining columns**

☐ Keep All  
☒ Drop All  
☐ Select

**Split By**  optional

**Split Columns**  optional

**Group**  optional

**Action**

Output table name:

☐ Keep dialog open

## Example 2 in required format

115

Application	Session	Duncan	Hayes	Holmes	Montgomery	Simpson
1	1	1	4	5	5	5
2	2	1	1	2	2	2
3	3	1	3	3	3	4
4	4	1	1	1	1	1
5	5	1	2	3	3	3
6	6	1	4	4	4	4
7	7	1	4	5	5	5
8	8	1	3	3	3	3
9	9	1	1	2	2	2
10	10	1	3	5	4	4
11	11	1	1	2	1	1
12	12	1	2	3	3	3
13	13	1	5	5	5	5
14	14	1	2	2	2	2
15	15	1	4	4	4	4
16	1	2	4	5	5	4
17	2	2	1	2	2	2
18	3	2	3	3	4	4
19	4	2	1	1	1	1
20	5	2	2	3	3	3
21	6	2	4	4	4	5
22	7	2	4	5	5	5
23	8	2	3	4	3	3
24	9	2	1	2	2	2
25	10	2	3	5	4	4
26	11	2	1	2	1	1
27	12	2	2	3	3	3
28	13	2	5	5	5	5

## Example 2 (cont'd)

116

Analyze → Quality and Process → Variability / Attribute Gauge Chart

Select Columns

- Application
- Session
- Duncan
- Hayes
- Holmes
- Montgomery
- Simpson

Chart Type  
Attribute ▼

Cast Selected Columns into Roles

Y,Response

- Duncan
- Hayes
- Holmes
- Montgomery
- Simpson

optional

Standard optional

X,Grouping

- Application

optional

Freq optional numeric

By optional

Enter Raters as separate columns

Action

OK

Cancel

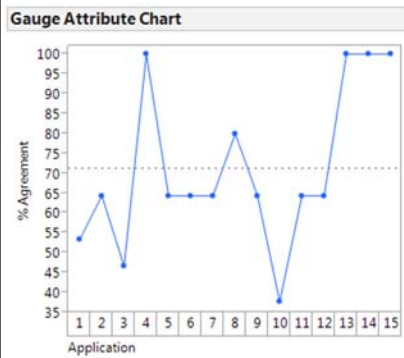
Remove

Recall

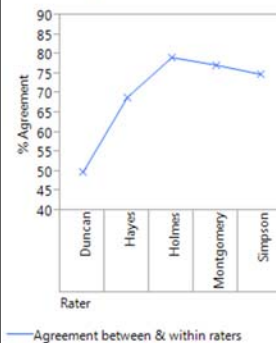
Help

## Example 2 (cont'd)

117



- The agreement grand mean is about 71 — way too low
- Follow-up: focus on application 10, and maybe 1 and 3 as well
- Greatest opportunity for improvement: further training of Duncan, and maybe Hayes as well



### Agreement Report

Rater	% Agreement	95%	
		Lower CI	Upper CI
Duncan	49.8039	27.2673	72.4205
Hayes	69.0196	43.9053	86.3784
Holmes	79.2157	53.9935	92.5247
Montgomery	77.2549	51.9716	91.4246
Simpson	74.9020	49.5997	90.0500

Number Inspected	Number Matched	% Agreement	95%	
			Lower CI	Upper CI
15	4	26.667	10.897	51.950

## Notes

118

Save the analysis script to the data table, close and save the data table as:

*application rating no stds unstacked.jmp*

## Exercise 6.1

119

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ print samples 1 no stds*. In this study 3 appraisers inspected 18 print samples 3 times each.

- a) Reformat the file as needed and run the analysis.
- b) Record the approximate agreement grand mean.
- c) Which sample(s) would be most useful in follow-up?
- d) Which appraiser has the lowest % agreement, and what is the % agreement?
- e) Save the script, close and save the data table as *print samples 1 no stds unstacked*.

## Exercise 6.2

120

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ print samples 2 no stds*. This is the follow-up study after the appraisers received additional training.

- a) Reformat the file as needed and run the analysis.
- b) Record the approximate agreement grand mean.
- c) Which appraiser has the lowest % agreement, and what is the % agreement?
- d) Save the script, close and save the data table as *print samples 2 no stds unstacked*.

## 7 Comparing Populations — Continuous Y

121

- Example of comparing populations
- Analysis of variance (ANOVA) for comparing populations
- Interpreting P values
- Degrees of freedom for signal and noise
- ANOVA in JMP

### Notes

122

Y variables are characteristics of parts or transactions that determine customer satisfaction, or lack thereof. They provide the data from which project metrics can be computed.

Comparison of statistical populations is equivalent to  $Y = f(X)$  analysis where the X variable is categorical. The distinct values of the X variable define the populations or sub-populations to be compared.

JMP uses the term *continuous* for quantitative variables. Except in the DOE section, JMP uses the term *nominal* for categorical variables.

## Example of comparing populations

123

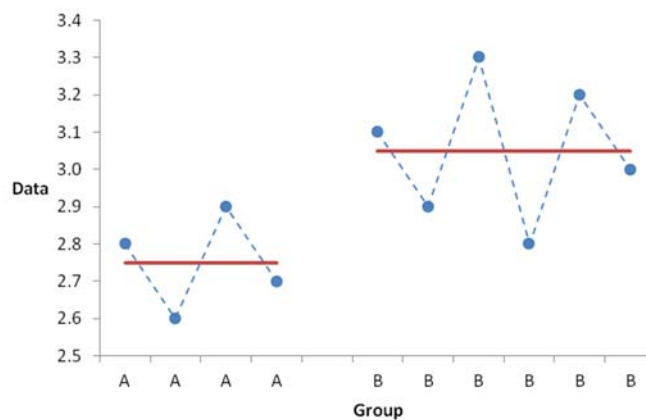
Group	Data	Avg.	SD
A	2.8	2.75	0.129
A	2.6		
A	2.9		
A	2.7		
B	3.1	3.05	0.187
B	2.9		
B	3.3		
B	2.8		
B	3.2		
B	3.0		

- We have two groups of data
- Could be a *before/after* comparison
- Could be a *stratification* analysis

- The sample means for the two groups are different
- Is this enough to conclude that the *population* means are different?

## Example (cont'd)

124



- Plotting the data is helpful, but doesn't give a definitive answer
- How far apart do the sample means have to be before we can say the population means are different?
- How do we take the *scatter* around the means into account?

*LSSV2 other stuff \ ANOVA two groups*

	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
	<b>Group</b>	<b>Data</b>			<b>Grand mean</b>		<b>Variance</b>		<b>Group</b>		<b>Error</b>	
	A	2.8			2.93		-0.13		-0.18		0.05	
	A	2.6			2.93		-0.33		-0.18		-0.15	
	A	2.9			2.93		-0.03		-0.18		0.15	
	A	2.7			2.93		-0.23		-0.18		-0.05	
	B	3.1	–		2.93	=	0.17	=	0.12	+	0.05	
	B	2.9			2.93		-0.03		0.12		-0.15	
	B	3.3			2.93		0.37		0.12		0.25	
	B	2.8			2.93		-0.13		0.12		-0.25	
	B	3.2			2.93		0.27		0.12		0.15	
	B	3.0			2.93		0.07		0.12		-0.05	

This worksheet shows all the calculations used to determine, based on the data, whether or not the population means are different.

The first step is to calculate the *Variance* column by subtracting the grand mean from the *Data* column. The *Variance* is then decomposed into *Group* (the “signal”) plus *Error* (the “noise”).

The *Group* column captures the portion of total variation caused by the difference between the sample means. The *Error* column captures the rest of the variation, variously called the *residual*, *unexplained*, or *noise* variation.

*LSSV2 other stuff \ ANOVA two groups*

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
	<u>Group</u>	<u>Data</u>		<u>Grand mean</u>		<u>Variance</u>		<u>Group</u>		<u>Error</u>		
	A	2.8		2.93		-0.13		-0.18		0.05		
	A	2.6		2.93		-0.33		-0.18		-0.15		
	A	2.9		2.93		-0.03		-0.18		0.15		
	A	2.7		2.93		-0.23		-0.18		-0.05		
	B	3.1	-	2.93	=	0.17	=	0.12	+	0.05		
	B	2.9		2.93		-0.03		0.12		-0.15		
	B	3.3		2.93		0.37		0.12		0.25		
	B	2.8		2.93		-0.13		0.12		-0.25		
	B	3.2		2.93		0.27		0.12		0.15		
	B	3.0		2.93		0.07		0.12		-0.05		
	Degrees of freedom (DF)		10	-	1	=	9	=	1	+	8	

The *Data* column consists of 10 mathematically independent quantities. We describe this by saying it has 10 *degrees of freedom* (DF).

The *Grand mean* column consists of 10 values, but they are all identical. This column has 1 DF.

The *Variance* column contains 10 values, but they are mathematically constrained to sum to 0. This column contains only 9 independent quantities, so it has 9 DF.

The *Group* column inherits the zero-sum constraint from the *Variance* column, and it consists of only 2 distinct values. This column contains only one independent quantity, so it has 1 DF.

The *Error* column has 8 DF, because DF have to add up.

The DF for *Group* and *Error* play a role in determining whether or not the population means are different.

*LSSV2 other stuff \ ANOVA two groups*

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
	<u>Group</u>	<u>Data</u>	<u>Grand mean</u>		<u>Variance</u>				<u>Group</u>	<u>Error</u>		
	A	2.8	2.93		-0.13				-0.18	0.05		
	A	2.6	2.93		-0.33				-0.18	-0.15		
	A	2.9	2.93		-0.03				-0.18	0.15		
	A	2.7	2.93		-0.23				-0.18	-0.05		
	B	3.1	2.93	-	0.17	=			0.12	+	0.05	
	B	2.9	2.93		-0.03				0.12		-0.15	
	B	3.3	2.93		0.37				0.12		0.25	
	B	2.8	2.93		-0.13				0.12		-0.25	
	B	3.2	2.93		0.27				0.12		0.15	
	B	3.0	2.93		0.07				0.12		-0.05	
	Degrees of freedom (DF)	10	-	1	=	9	=		1	+	8	
	Sum of squares (SS)	86.29	-	85.85	=	0.441	=		0.216	+	0.225	
	Mean square (MS)	(SS / DF)				0.049			0.216		0.028	

The sum of squares (SS) is a measure of the magnitude of each column. It is the sum of the squares of the values in a column.

The sums of squares for the *Variance*, *Group*, and *Error* columns are usually much smaller than those of the *Data* and *Grand mean* columns.

The mean square (MS) is the statistically normalized measure of the magnitude of each column. It is the SS for a column divided by the DF for that column.

The mean squares for the *Data* and *Grand mean* columns play no role in determining whether or not the population means are different, so the MS is usually calculated only for the *Variance*, *Group*, and *Error* columns.

*LSSV2 other stuff \ ANOVA two groups*

<u>Group</u>	<u>Data</u>		<u>Grand mean</u>		<u>Variance</u>		<u>Group</u>	<u>Error</u>
A	2.8		2.93		-0.13		-0.18	0.05
A	2.6		2.93		-0.33		-0.18	-0.15
A	2.9		2.93		-0.03		-0.18	0.15
A	2.7		2.93		-0.23		-0.18	-0.05
B	3.1	-	2.93	=	0.17	=	0.12	+ 0.05
B	2.9		2.93		-0.03		0.12	-0.15
B	3.3		2.93		0.37		0.12	0.25
B	2.8		2.93		-0.13		0.12	-0.25
B	3.2		2.93		0.27		0.12	0.15
B	3.0		2.93		0.07		0.12	-0.05
Degrees of freedom (DF)	10	-	1	=	9	=	1	+ 8
Sum of squares (SS)	86.29	-	85.85	=	0.441	=	0.216	+ 0.225
Mean square (MS)	(SS / DF)				0.049		0.216	0.028
F ratio	(Group MS / Error MS)							7.680

The *Group* MS measures the magnitude of the variation caused by the difference between the sample means.

The *Error* MS measures the magnitude of the variation caused by everything *except* the difference between the sample means.

The *F ratio* is the *Group* MS divided by *Error* MS. It is a signal-to-noise ratio. The larger the F ratio, the stronger the evidence of a difference between the population means.

## ANOVA (5 of 6)

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<u>Group</u>	<u>Data</u>	<u>Grand mean</u>	<u>Variance</u>	<u>Group</u>	<u>Error</u>
A	2.8	2.93	-0.13	-0.18	0.05
A	2.6	2.93	-0.33	-0.18	-0.15
A	2.9	2.93	-0.03	-0.18	0.15
A	2.7	2.93	-0.23	-0.18	-0.05
B	3.1	2.93	0.17	0.12	0.05
B	2.9	2.93	-0.03	0.12	-0.15
B	3.3	2.93	0.37	0.12	0.25
B	2.8	2.93	-0.13	0.12	-0.25
B	3.2	2.93	0.27	0.12	0.15
B	3.0	2.93	0.07	0.12	-0.05
Degrees of freedom (DF)	10	1	9	1	8
Sum of squares (SS)	86.29	85.85	0.441	0.216	0.225
Mean square (MS)	(SS / DF)		0.049	0.216	0.028
F ratio	(Group MS / Error MS)				7.680
P value	(Probability of an F ratio this large by chance alone)				0.0242

## ANOVA (5 of 6, cont'd)

134

The *P value* is a probability calculation based on the F ratio, the DF for the *Group* column, and the DF for the *Error* column.

The P value should be interpreted as the probability of *no difference* between the population means.

If there are 3 or more groups, it should be interpreted as the probability that the population means are *all the same*.

Interpreting P values			135
P value	Evidence that populations are different or variables are correlated		Confidence level (CL)
	1.00	None	None
	0.15	Some	$85\% \leq CL < 95\%$
	0.05	Strong	$95\% \leq CL < 99\%$
	0.01	Very strong	$CL \geq 99\%$
	0.0001		

P values (cont'd)	136
<p>As shown above, the P value has fixed reference values for interpretation.</p> <p>The P value is inversely related to the F ratio:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ The smaller the P value, the stronger the evidence of a difference in the population means.</li> </ul> <p>If there are 3 or more groups, the interpretation is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ The smaller the P value, the stronger the evidence of one or more differences among the population means.</li> </ul>	

<u>Group</u>	<u>Data</u>	<u>Grand mean</u>	<u>Variance</u>	<u>Group</u>	<u>Error</u>
A	2.8	2.93	-0.13	-0.18	0.05
A	2.6	2.93	-0.33	-0.18	-0.15
A	2.9	2.93	-0.03	-0.18	0.15
A	2.7	2.93	-0.23	-0.18	-0.05
B	3.1	2.93	0.17	0.12	0.05
B	2.9	2.93	-0.03	0.12	-0.15
B	3.3	2.93	0.37	0.12	0.25
B	2.8	2.93	-0.13	0.12	-0.25
B	3.2	2.93	0.27	0.12	0.15
B	3.0	2.93	0.07	0.12	-0.05
Degrees of freedom (DF)	10	1	9	1	8
Sum of squares (SS)	86.29	85.85	0.441	0.216	0.225
Mean square (MS)	(SS / DF)		0.049	0.216	0.028
F ratio	(Group MS / Error MS)				7.680
P value	(Probability of an F ratio this large by chance alone)				0.0242
Root mean square (RMS)	(Square root of MS)		0.221		0.168

The *Root Mean Square* (RMS) for a column is the square root of the MS for that column.

The RMS for the *Variance* column (0.221) is equal to the usual standard deviation of the data (STDEV function in Excel).

The RMS for the *Error* column (0.168) is the standard deviation of the noise variation (error, residual, unexplained, etc.).

JMP uses the term *Root Mean Square Error* (RMSE) for the RMS of the *Error* column.\*

\*Given that Statistics is a body of knowledge dedicated to quantifying and reducing variation, the variation in statistical terminology is appalling.

$N$  = total sample size

$G$  = number of groups being compared

$G - 1$  = DF for the group column

$N - G$  = DF for the error column

- The *Error* DF is more important than the *Group* DF
- It determines the accuracy of the predicted values
- Larger is better, 10 is OK, bare minimum is 5
- When DF is mentioned without a qualifier, it always means *Error* DF

## Exercise 7.1

Open *ANOVA three groups*. Enter the appropriate numbers and formulas into the white cells to produce an ANOVA for the data shown here.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
1														
2		Group	Data		Grand mean		Variance			Group		Error		
3		A	2.7											
4		A	2.7											
5		A	2.8											
6		A	2.9											
7		B	3.1											
8		B	3.2	—		=		=			+			
9		B	3.3											
10		B	3.3											
11		C	2.6											
12		C	2.7											
13		C	2.7											
14		C	2.8											
15		Degrees of freedom (DF)		—		=		=			+			
16		Sum of squares (SS)		—		=		=			+			
17		Mean square (MS)	(SS / DF)											
18		F ratio	(Group MS / Error MS)											
19		P value	(Probability of getting an F ratio this large by chance alone)											
20		Root mean square (RMS)	(Square root of MS)											

*File* → *New* → *Data Table* → Enter (or copy-paste) data as shown

From Exercise 7.1

	Group	Data
1	A	2.7
2	A	2.7
3	A	2.8
4	A	2.9
5	B	3.1
6	B	3.2
7	B	3.3
8	B	3.3
9	C	2.6
10	C	2.7
11	C	2.7
12	C	2.8

*Analyze* → *Fit Y by X* → Set up as shown → OK

Fit Y by X - Contextual - JMP

Distribution of Y for each X. Modeling types determine analysis.

Select Columns

- Group
- Data

Oneway

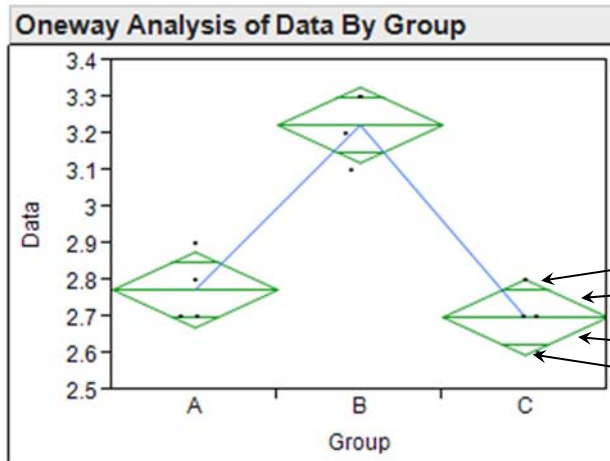
- Bivariate
- Oneway
- Logistic
- Contingency

Cast Selected Columns into Roles

- Y, Response: Data (optional)
- X, Factor: Group (optional)
- Block: (optional)
- Weight: (optional numeric)
- Freq: (optional numeric)
- By: (optional)

Action

- OK
- Cancel
- Remove
- Recall
- Help



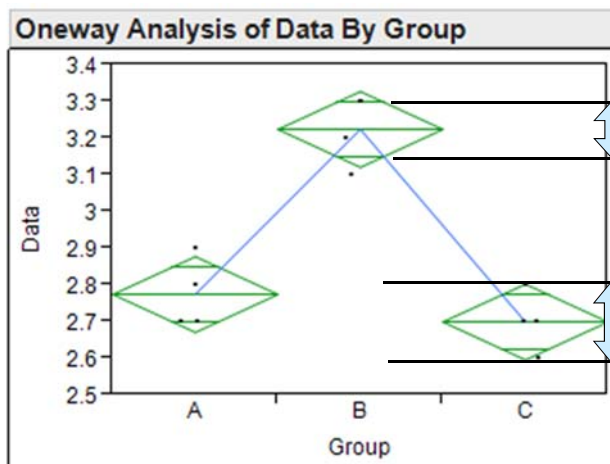
*Flying saucers!*

Upper cockpit  
Upper body  
Lower body  
Lower cockpit

Population means are different  
(with 95% confidence)



Saucers can fly horizontally  
past each other with no contact  
between their bodies



"Fly by" interval  
for comparing  
population means

95% confidence  
interval for a single  
population mean

Approx. formula for "fly by" interval:  $\text{Sample mean} \pm \sqrt{2}(\text{RMSE}/\sqrt{N})$

Approx. formula for 95% confidence interval:  $\text{Sample mean} \pm 2(\text{RMSE}/\sqrt{N})$

N = sample size for each group

## Oneway Anova

## Summary of Fit

Rsquare 0.895833  
 AdjRsquare 0.872685  
 RootMean Square Error 0.091287  
 Mean of Response 2.9  
 Observations (or Sum Wgts) 12

RMSE

## Analysis of Variance

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Prob > F
Group	2	0.64500000	0.322500	38.7000	<.0001*
Error	9	0.07500000	0.008333		
C. Total	11	0.72000000			

Signal

Noise

P value

- Standard deviation of the noise variation (error, residual, unexplained etc.)
- Smaller is better
- Has units of the Y variable

## Oneway Anova

## Summary of Fit

Rsquare 0.895833  
 AdjRsquare 0.872685  
 RootMean Square Error 0.091287  
 Mean of Response 2.9  
 Observations (or Sum Wgts) 12

Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>

## Analysis of Variance

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Prob > F
Group	2	0.64500000	0.322500	38.7000	<.0001*
Error	9	0.07500000	0.008333		
C. Total	11	0.72000000			

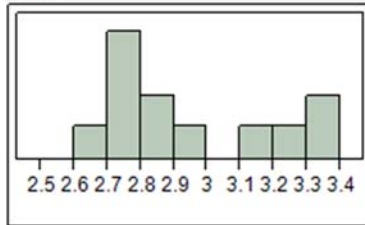
- Proportion of the total variation in Y that is caused by ("explained by") variation in X
- Larger is better
- Unitless

## How adjusted $R^2$ is calculated

147

### Distributions

#### Data



#### Summary Statistics

Mean 2.9  
Std Dev 0.2558409  
N 12

STDEV

Total variation  
in the data

$$\text{Proportion of Y variation NOT caused by X} = \left( \frac{\text{RMSE}}{\text{STDEV}} \right)^2 = \left( \frac{0.091287}{0.2558409} \right)^2 = 0.127315$$

$$\text{Proportion of Y variation CAUSED by X} = 1 - \left( \frac{\text{RMSE}}{\text{STDEV}} \right)^2 = 0.872685 = \text{Adjusted } R^2$$

## Notes

148

## Exercise 7.2

149

Data table: *number and size of defects*. *Max size* is the area in square centimeters of the largest contiguous weld repair area on each casting. Smaller *Max size* is better.

- a) Test for a difference between welders A and B with respect to *Max size*. Give the P value and interpret the result. (Ignore the *t Test* section of the output.)
- b) Which welder represents best practice? What follow-up action should be taken?
- c) Give the value and the units of the RMSE in this example.
- d) The RMSE is meaningful only if each group has roughly the same amount of variation. Is this true in this case?
- e) Save your analysis script to the data table, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 7.3

150

Data table: *quotation process*. A supplier receives requests for quote (RFQs) from customers, then develops and submits quotes. TAT is the turnaround around time in days. BU is the business unit which prepares the quote.

- a) Is the modeling type for BU correct? If not, change it to what it should be. Test for differences among the business units. Give the P value and interpret the result.
- b) Which BU(s) represent best practice? What follow-up action should be taken?
- c) Save your analysis script to the data table, close and save the data table.

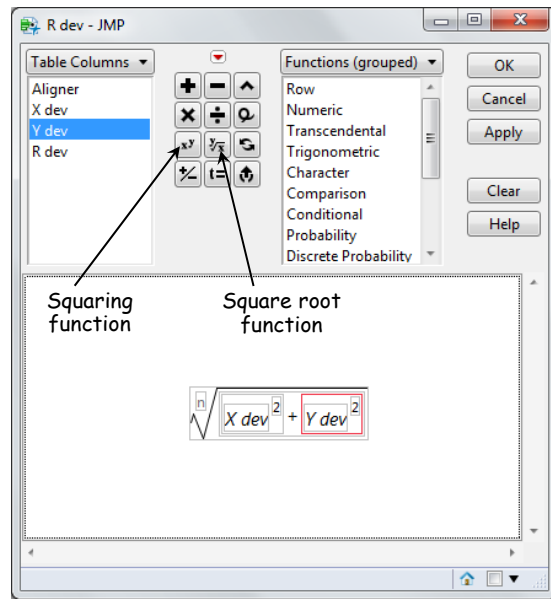
## Exercise 7.4

151

Data table: *alignment process*. This process attaches orifice plates to chips. Three similar aligners (alignment tools) are used in this process. *Y dev* and *X dev* are the vertical and horizontal deviations from target in mils.

The alignment specification applies to the radial deviation calculated from *X* and *Y*. Double click on the blank column header next to *Y dev*, click on *Column 4*, rename as *R dev*.

Right click on *R dev*, select *Formula*. Use your mouse and the keypad provided to create the formula for *R dev*.



## Exercise 7.4 (cont'd)

152

- Is the modeling type for *Aligner* correct? If not, change it to what it should be. Test for differences among the three aligners with respect to *R dev*. Give the P value and interpret the result.
- Which aligner represents best practice? (Smaller *R dev* is better.) What follow-up action should be taken?
- Save your analysis script to the data table, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 7.5

153

Data table: *casting dimensions*. We want to reduce variation in the length of roughly cylindrical castings. The specification for *Length* is  $600 \pm 1.5$ . The wax patterns for these castings are molded on two machines A and B.

- a) Test for differences between the molding machines with respect to *Length*. Give the P value and interpret the result.
  
- b) Which machine represents best practice? (It is helpful to draw a reference line at the nominal value. Right click on one of the numbers on the vertical axis, select *Axis Settings*, use the *Reference Lines* tool. ) What follow-up action should be taken?
  
- c) Save your analysis script to the data table, but don't close the data table.

## Exercise 7.5 (cont'd)

154

We also want to reduce variation in the diameter of the castings. The specification for *Diam* is  $50 \pm 0.75$ .

- d) Test for differences between the molding machines with respect to *Diam*. Give the P value and interpret the result.
  
- e) Which machine represents best practice? (It is helpful to draw a reference line at the nominal value.) What follow-up action should be taken?
  
- f) For each of the variables *Length* and *Diam*, a certain proportion of the total variation is caused by the difference between the machines. For which variable is this proportion highest?
  
- g) Save your analysis script to the data table, close and save the data table.

## 8 Comparing Populations — Pass/fail Y

155

Raw data	One part or transaction per row
Tabulated data	Multiple parts or transactions per row

## Raw data example

156

Data table: *quotation process.jmp*  
 Want to compare the account managers in terms of % late  
*Analyze* → *Fit Y by X* → set up as shown → OK

Notes: C:\Users\Russell B...

quotation process

	Quote Num	AcctMgr	BU	Initial RFQ	Month	RFQ Cycles	Finance review	TAT	TAT<=3	PO
1	6250012	19	6	06/02/2003	2003.06	1	Yes	2	Pass	Yes
2	7250023									
3	7250022									
4	5250039									
5	5250040									
6	7250011									
7	7250025									
8	6250014									
9	6250015									
10	5250044									
11	3250033									
12	7250024									
13	3250035									
14	5250045									
15	8250009									
16	8250010									
17	8250011									
18	8250012									
19	3250024									
20	5250046									
21	7250026									
22	8250013									
23	3250037									

Nominal!

Columns (10/0)

- Quote Num
- AcctMgr
- BU
- Initial RFQ
- Month
- RFQ Cycles
- Finance review
- TAT
- TAT<=3
- PO

Fit Y by X - Contextual - JMP

Distribution of Y for each X. Modeling types determine analysis.

Select Columns

- Quote Num
- AcctMgr
- BU
- Initial RFQ
- Month
- RFQ Cycles
- Finance review
- TAT
- TAT<=3
- PO

Cast Selected Columns into Roles

Y, Response: TAT<=3 (optional)

X, Factor: AcctMgr (optional)

Block: (optional)

Weight: (optional numeric)

Freq: (optional numeric)

By: (optional)

Action

OK

Cancel

Remove

Recall

Help

Contingency

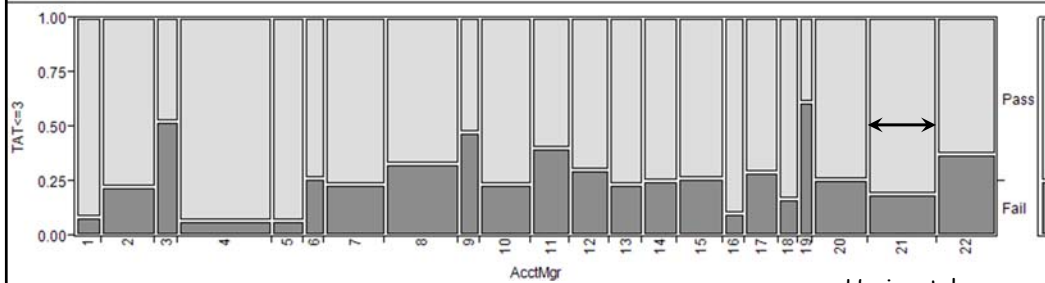
Bivariate

Oneway

Logistic

Contingency

Mosaic Plot



## Tests

	N	DF	-LogLike	RSquare (U)
	837	21	32.411285	0.0687

P value

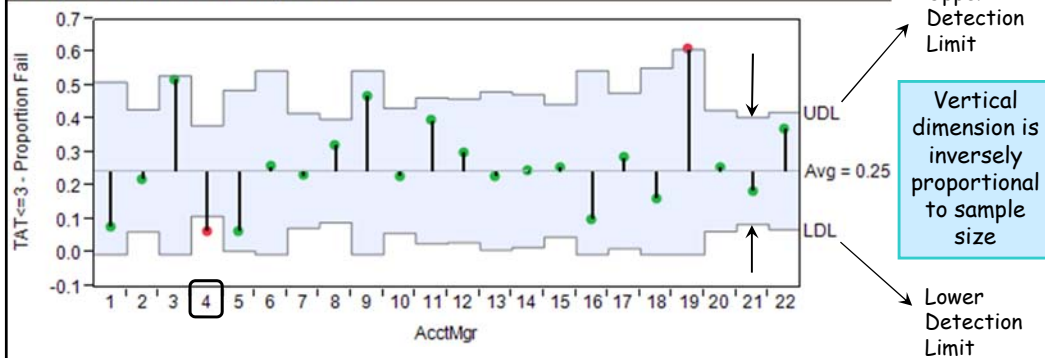
Test	ChiSquare	Prob>ChiSq
Likelihood Ratio	64.823	<.0001*
Pearson	62.018	<.0001*

Horizontal dimension is proportional to sample size

- Very strong evidence of differences among account managers
- Who represents best practice?

- Red triangle → *Analysis of Means for Proportions*

Analysis of Means for Proportions



- Not as useful as “flying saucers” (not available for pass/fail Y)
- Points above (below) the shaded region are significantly higher (lower) than points inside the shaded region
- Account manager 4 represents best practice → find out what that is, make it the standard
- Save your analysis script to the data table, but don’t close the data table.

## Exercise 8.1

159

- a) Test for differences among the business units in terms of % late. Give the P value and interpret the result. Is there best practice? If so, where is it (based on this analysis only)?
- b) Right click in the PO header, select *Column Properties* → *Value Ordering*, then reverse the default ordering. (This will make it easier to see differences in the PO hit rate.) Test for differences among the account managers with respect to PO hit rate. Give the P value and interpret the result. Is there best practice? If so, where is it?
- c) Test for differences among the business units with respect to PO hit rate. Give the P value and interpret the result. Is there best practice? If so, where is it?
- d) Save your scripts, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 8.2

160

Open *ATE Mar & Apr* (in JMP). If necessary, change the modeling types for *Model Number* and *Test Station*.

- a) Test for a difference between the model numbers with respect to failure rate. Give the P value and interpret the result.
- b) Test for differences among the test stations with respect to failure rate. Give the P value and interpret the result. If significant differences exist, describe them and suggest possible causes.
- c) Save your scripts, close and save the data table.

- Pass/fail data often comes in tabulated form
- Each row may represent a
  - ✓ Production lot
  - ✓ Work order
  - ✓ Time period
  - ✓ Machine
  - ✓ Work center
  - ✓ Part number . . .
- This format is perfect for plotting % defective
- However, it is the wrong format for comparing populations in JMP

- Open *LSSV2 data sets \ out-of-box failures* (in JMP)
- See next slide

## Plotting % defective

163

1. Create a new column called *% Failed*

2. Define it by the formula

$$\frac{\text{Failed}}{\text{Units Produced}} \times 100$$

3. Use *Graph* → *Overlay Plot* to create the plot on the next slide

out-of-box failures - JMP

	Process	Month	Units Produced	Failed	% Failed
1	A	01/2003	3920	109	2.78
2	A	02/2003	2667	70	2.62
3	A	03/2003	2511	61	2.43
4	A	04/2003	2556	79	3.09
5	A	05/2003	1730	49	2.83
6	A	06/2003	2196	71	3.23
7	A	07/2003	2190	68	3.11
8	A	08/2003	2342	56	2.39
9	A	09/2003	3261	98	3.01
10	A	10/2003	2971	97	3.26
11	B	11/2003	2803	45	1.61
12	B	12/2003	4644	76	1.64
13	B	01/2004	4547	75	1.65
14	B	02/2004	4160	58	1.39
15	B	03/2004	3393	29	0.85
16	B	04/2004	2283	17	0.74
17	B	05/2004	2230	26	1.17
18	B	06/2004	2799	27	0.96
19	B	07/2004	1800	36	2.00
20	B	08/2004	2983	29	0.97
21	C	09/2004	4111	40	0.97
22	C	10/2004	3372	30	0.89
23	C	11/2004	4096	48	1.17
24	C	12/2004	5245	36	0.69

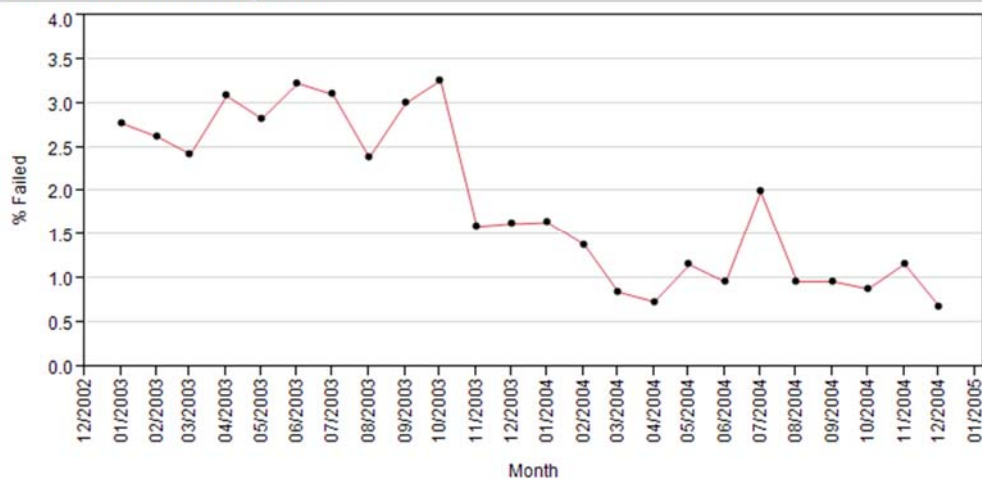
Columns (5/1): Process, Month, Units Produced, Failed, % Failed

Rows: All rows (24), Selected (0), Excluded (0), Hidden (0), Labelled (0)

## Plotting % defective (cont'd)

164

Out-of-box failure rate by month



## Reformatting for comparing populations

165

1. Create a new column called *Passed* defined by the formula  
**Units Produced - Failed**
2. Go to *Tables* → *Stack*
3. Use *Failed* and *Passed* as the *Stack Columns*
4. See next slide

out-of-box failures - JMP

File Edit Tables Rows Cols DOE Analyze Graph Tools View Window Help

out-of-box failures  
Notes C:\Users\Russell B...

Columns (6/1)

- Process
- Month
- Units Produced
- Failed
- % Failed
- Passed

Rows

All rows 24  
Selected 0  
Excluded 0  
Hidden 0  
Labelled 0

	Process	Month	Units Produced	Failed	% Failed	Passed
1	A	01/2003	3920	109	2.78	3811
2	A	02/2003	2667	70	2.62	2597
3	A	03/2003	2511	61	2.43	2450
4	A	04/2003	2556	79	3.09	2477
5	A	05/2003	1730	49	2.83	1681
6	A	06/2003	2196	71	3.23	2125
7	A	07/2003	2190	68	3.11	2122
8	A	08/2003	2342	56	2.39	2286
9	A	09/2003	3261	98	3.01	3163
10	A	10/2003	2971	97	3.26	2874
11	B	11/2003	2803	45	1.61	2758
12	B	12/2003	4644	76	1.64	4568
13	B	01/2004	4547	75	1.65	4472
14	B	02/2004	4160	58	1.39	4102
15	B	03/2004	3393	29	0.85	3364
16	B	04/2004	2283	17	0.74	2266
17	B	05/2004	2230	26	1.17	2204
18	B	06/2004	2799	27	0.96	2772
19	B	07/2004	1800	36	2.00	1764
20	B	08/2004	2983	29	0.97	2954
21	C	09/2004	4111	40	0.97	4071
22	C	10/2004	3372	30	0.89	3342
23	C	11/2004	4096	48	1.17	4048
24	C	12/2004	5245	36	0.69	5209

## Reformatting (cont'd)

166

6. Change the name of the *Data* column to *Freq* and the *Label* column to *Result*
7. There are now two rows for each month. The *Units Produced* and *% Failed* columns are no longer relevant, and may be deleted.
8. Save the new data table as *out of box failures stacked*

Untitled 12 - JMP

File Edit Tables Rows Cols DOE Analyze Graph Tools View Window Help

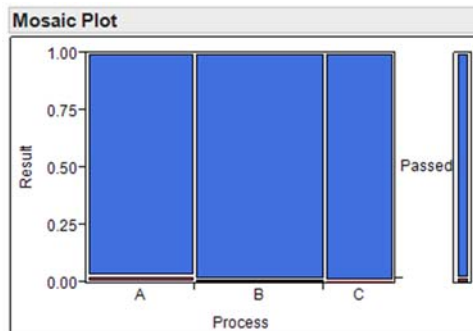
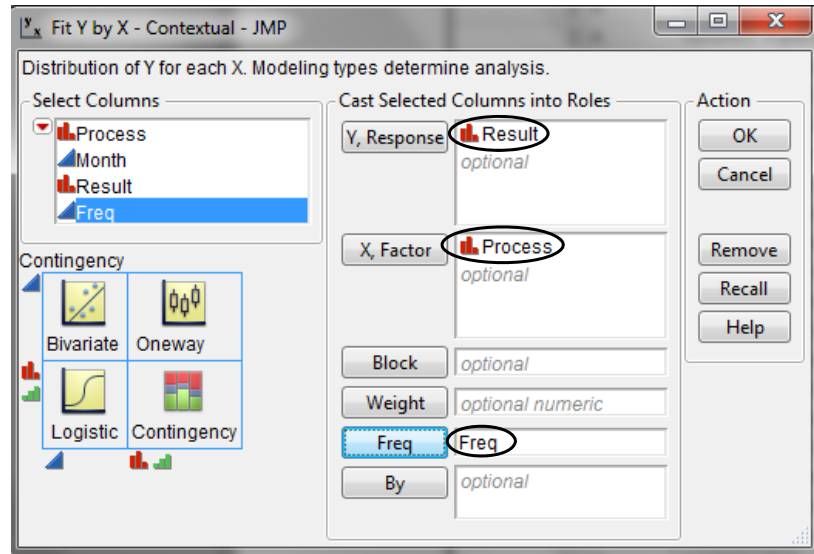
Untitled 12  
Source

Columns (6/0)

- Process
- Month
- Units Produced
- % Failed
- Result
- Freq

	Process	Month	Units Produced	% Failed	Result	Freq
1	A	01/2003	3920	2.78	Failed	109
2	A	01/2003	3920	2.78	Passed	3811
3	A	02/2003	2667	2.62	Failed	70
4	A	02/2003	2667	2.62	Passed	2597
5	A	03/2003	2511	2.43	Failed	61
6	A	03/2003	2511	2.43	Passed	2450
7	A	04/2003	2556	3.09	Failed	79
8	A	04/2003	2556	3.09	Passed	2477
9	A	05/2003	1730	2.83	Failed	49
10	A	05/2003	1730	2.83	Passed	1681
11	A	06/2003	2196	3.23	Failed	71
12	A	06/2003	2196	3.23	Passed	2125
13	A	07/2003	2190	3.11	Failed	68
14	A	07/2003	2190	3.11	Passed	2122
15	A	08/2003	2342	2.39	Failed	56
16	A	08/2003	2342	2.39	Passed	2286
17	A	09/2003	3261	3.01	Failed	98
18	A	09/2003	3261	3.01	Passed	3163
19	A	10/2003	2971	3.26	Failed	97
20	A	10/2003	2971	3.26	Passed	2874
21	B	11/2003	2803	1.61	Failed	45
22	B	11/2003	2803	1.61	Passed	2758
23	B	12/2003	4644	1.64	Failed	76
24	B	12/2003	4644	1.64	Passed	4568

Analyze → Fit Y by X → set up as shown → OK



Contingency Table

		Result	
		Failed	Passed
Process	A	758	25586
	B	418	31224
	C	154	16670
	Total	1330	73480

Tests

N	DF	-LogLike	RSquare (U)
74810	2	141.17363	0.0211
Test	ChiSquare	Prob>ChiSq	
Likelihood Ratio	282.347	<.0001*	
Pearson	291.850	<.0001*	

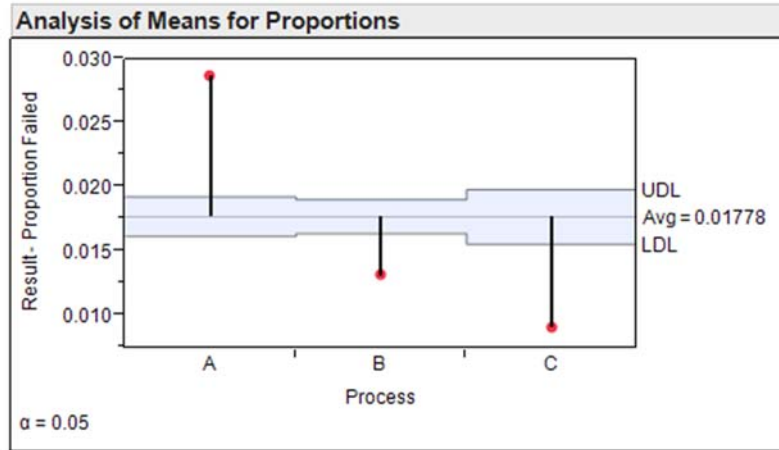
- Very strong evidence that processes A, B, and C do not all have the same failure rate

- The mosaic plot does not help us determine where the differences are

- Click on the red triangle at the top of the analysis window

- Select *Analysis of Means for Proportions*

- See next slide



- This plot shows that Processes B and C are significant improvements over Process A
- It does not tell us whether or not C is a significant improvement over B
- Save your script, but don't close the data table.

## Exercise 8.3

- Exclude the rows for process A.
- Test for a difference between C and B. Give the P value and interpret the result.
- Close and save the data table. (No need to save the script again.)

## Exercise 8.4

171

Open *molding process - stratification* (in JMP).

- Did JMP assign the correct modeling type for *Machine*?
- Go to *Tables* → *Summary* → use *PN* as the *Group* variable → use *Machine* as the *Subgroup* variable → OK.

	PN	N Rows	N(1)	N(10)	N(11)	N(13)	N(14)	N(15)	N(2)	N(3)	N(9)
1	GV0098	43	0	0	0	0	11	32	0	0	0
2	GV0101	31	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	30
3	GV0119	42	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	39	0
4	GV0129	89	0	0	0	0	88	1	0	0	0
5	GV0132	64	0	0	0	0	0	0	64	0	0
6	GY0251	37	0	0	17	20	0	0	0	0	0
7	GY0298	31	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	24
8	GY0306	53	0	0	27	26	0	0	0	0	0
9	GY0325	36	1	0	34	1	0	0	0	0	0
10	KU0041	84	83	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0

- Note that each part number runs on only one or two of the machines. A comparison of the part numbers could be biased by differences among the machines. A comparison of the machines could be biased by differences among the part numbers. Because of this, we should use the concatenated variable *PN-Machine* as the X variable in the analysis.

## Exercise 8.4 (cont'd)

172

- Reformat the data for comparing populations (follow steps 1 – 7 in the worked example).
- Test for significant differences among the combinations of part number and machine with respect to fraction defective. Give the P value and interpret the results.
- Based on fraction defective, which three combinations of part number and machine would be the best focus for an improvement project?
- Save your script, save the data table as *molding process - stratification*, then close it.

## 9 Simple Regression

173

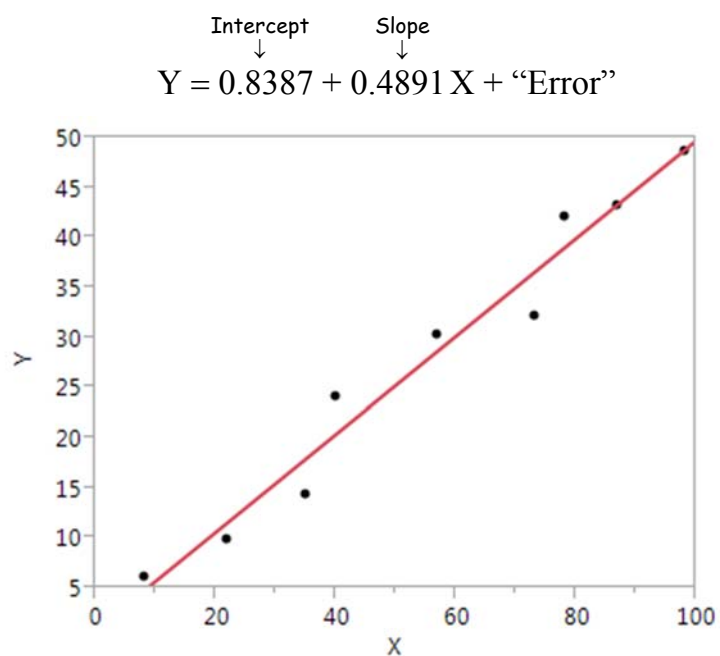
- Terminology
- Purposes of regression analysis
- “Simple” regression
- The line of best fit
- Regression in JMP
- Regression through the origin

## Terminology

174

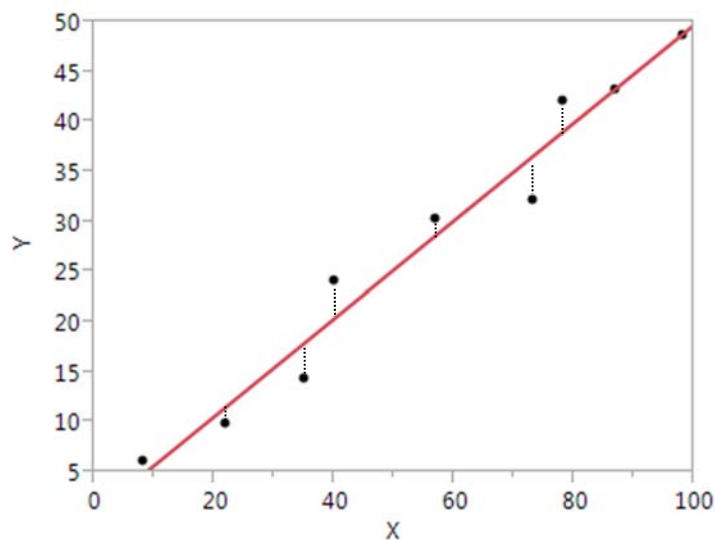
- The term *correlation* is often used any time we speak of relating one variable to another
- Technically, *correlation* should be used only if both variables are quantitative
- An input/output relationship between the two variables is not required (for example, two variables measured at the same point in a process)
- *Regression* is a special case of correlation where there *is* an input-output relationship  $Y = f(X)$ , so  $X$  is a possible cause of variation in  $Y$
- In regression we want to test for correlation, but beyond that we want to quantify the relationship and use it for some purpose

- Predict Y from X
- Determine best setting for X (optimization)
- Reduce variation in Y by controlling X



- There are many ways to measure the distance from an (X, Y) data point to a line in the XY plane
- For example, the shortest distance is along a path perpendicular to the line
- The only distance relevant in regression is the “error” — the difference between a Y data value and its predicted value based on the line
- The line of best fit is the one that minimizes the sum of the squared errors
- This is an example of *least-squares model fitting*

The best fitting line is the one that minimizes the sum of the squared “errors”



## Finding the line of best fit

179

Open *LSSV2 other stuff\ANOVA linear fit*

Worksheet *Prediction & error 1*

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
1																
2																
3																
4																
5																
6																
7																
8																
9																
10																
11																
12																
13																
14																
15																
16																
17																

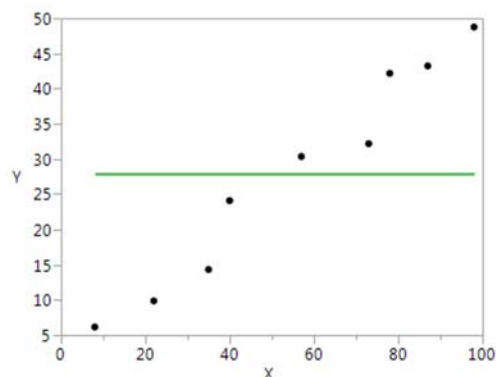
	X data	Y data	Prediction	Error
	8	6.16	27.90	-21.74
	22	9.88	27.90	-18.02
	35	14.35	27.90	-13.55
	40	24.06	27.90	-3.84
	57	30.34	27.90	2.44
	73	32.17	27.90	4.27
	78	42.18	27.90	14.28
	87	43.23	27.90	15.33
	98	48.76	27.90	20.86
Sum of squares (SS)		8901.3	= 7007.4	+ 1893.9
Degrees of freedom (DF)		9	= 1	+ 8
Root mean square error (RMSE)				15.39
Average Y		27.90		
STDEV of Y		15.39		

Y = 27.9033 + 0.0000 X

## Finding the line of best fit (cont'd)

180

In this worksheet we ignore the X variable completely, and use the average value of Y as the prediction. This is just the calculation of the mean and standard deviation of the Y variable. (The values in cells I14 and E17 are the same.)



The sum of the squared errors (cell I12) can be dramatically reduced by using the X variable to “explain” more of the variation in the Y variable.

## Finding the line of best fit (cont'd)

181

### Worksheet *Prediction & error 2*

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
1																
2																
3																
4																
5																
6																
7																
8																
9																
10																
11																
12																
13																
14																
15																
16																
17																
18																
19																

	X data	Y data	Prediction	Error	
	8	6.16	4.75	1.41	
	22	9.88	11.60	-1.72	
	35	14.35	17.96	-3.61	
	40	24.06	20.40	3.66	
	57	30.34	28.72	1.62	
	73	32.17	36.54	-4.37	
	78	42.18	38.99	3.19	
	87	43.23	43.39	-0.16	
	98	48.76	48.77	-0.01	
	Sum of squares (SS)	8901.3	= 8838.0	+ 63.3	
	Degrees of freedom (DF)	9	= 2	+ 7	
	Root mean square error (RMSE)			3.007	
	Average Y	27.90			
	STDEV of Y	15.39			
	Adjusted R square	0.962			

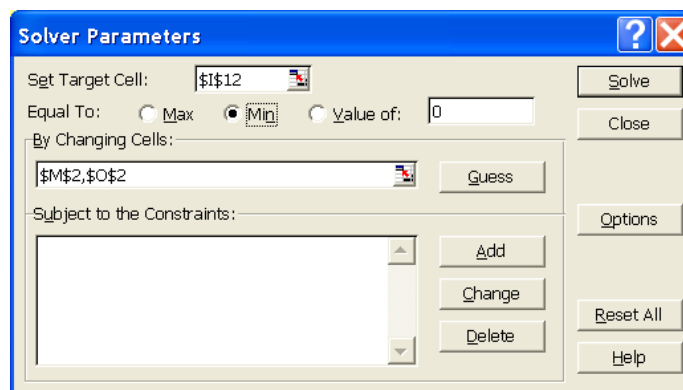
Y = 0.8387 + 0.4891 X

Proportion of total Y variation caused by ("explained by") X variation

## Finding the line of best fit (cont'd)

182

In this worksheet we used the Excel *Solver* tool to find the line of best fit, using the setup shown below. The *Error* column now contains the deviations from that line. The sum of the squared errors has been reduced from 1893.9 to 63.3 (cell I12).



The distribution of degrees of freedom has also changed. The *Prediction* column is now completely determined by the intercept and slope in cells M2 and O2, so it has only 2 degrees of freedom. The *Error* column has 7 degrees of freedom because DFs have to add up.

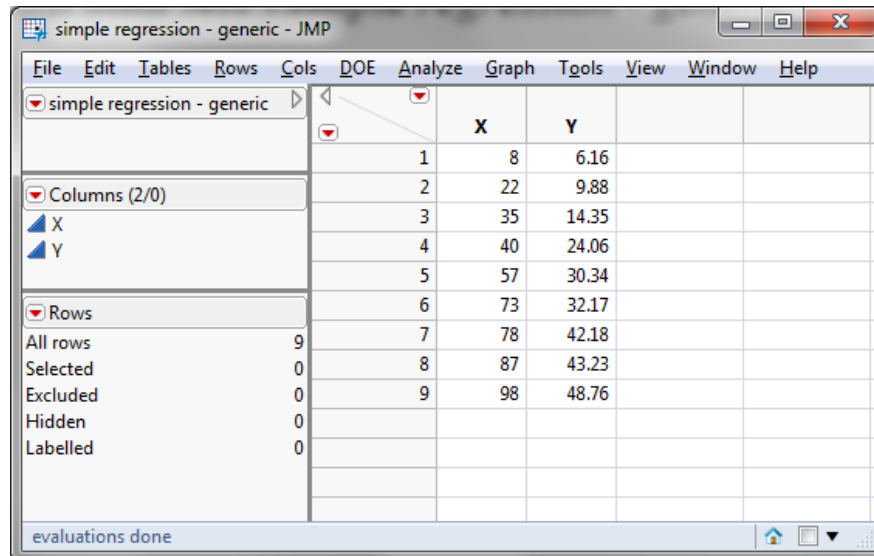
$N$  = total sample size

$G$  = number of parameters in the equation  
= DF for the prediction column

$N - G$  = DF for the error column

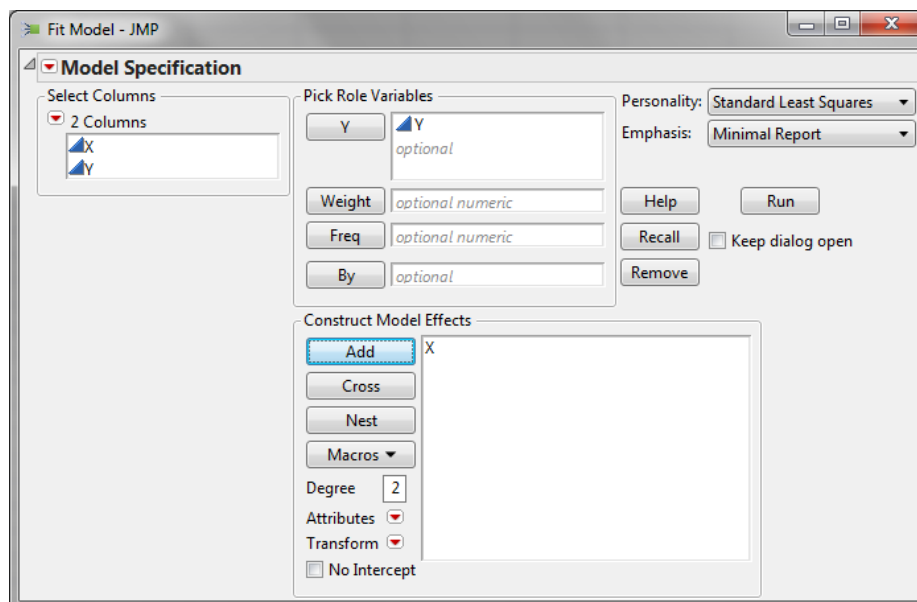
- The *Error* DF is more important than the *Prediction* DF
- It determines the accuracy of the predicted values
- Larger is better, 10 is OK, bare minimum is 5
- When DF is mentioned without a qualifier, it always means *Error* DF

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ simple regression - generic*



	X	Y
1	8	6.16
2	22	9.88
3	35	14.35
4	40	24.06
5	57	30.34
6	73	32.17
7	78	42.18
8	87	43.23
9	98	48.76

*Analyze* → *Fit Model* → Set up as shown → Run



**Fit Model - JMP**

**Model Specification**

Select Columns: 2 Columns (X, Y)

Pick Role Variables:

- Y (optional)
- Weight (optional numeric)
- Freq (optional numeric)
- By (optional)

Construct Model Effects:

- Add (X)
- Cross
- Nest
- Macros
- Degree: 2
- Attributes
- Transform
- No Intercept

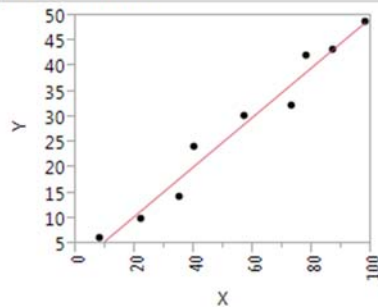
Personality: Standard Least Squares

Emphasis: Minimal Report

Buttons: Help, Run, Recall, Keep dialog open, Remove

## Response Y

## Regression Plot



## Summary of Fit

RSquare	0.966581
RSquare Adj	0.961807
Root Mean Square Error	3.006984
Mean of Response	27.90333
Observations (or Sum Wgts)	9

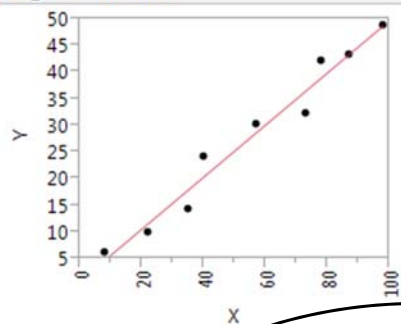
## Analysis of Variance

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio
Model	1	1830.6557	1830.66	202.4624
Error	7	63.2937	9.04	Prob > F
C. Total	8	1893.9494		<.0001*

- Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)
- Standard deviation of Y variation caused by factors other than X
- “Error” standard deviation
- Also called “residual” standard deviation
- Smaller is better

P value

## Regression Plot



- Proportion of Y variation caused by (“explained by”) X variation
- Larger is better

## Summary of Fit

RSquare	0.966581
RSquare Adj	0.961807
Root Mean Square Error	3.006984
Mean of Response	27.90333
Observations (or Sum Wgts)	9

$$= 1 - \left( \frac{\text{RMSE}}{\text{STDEV}} \right)^2 = 1 - \left( \frac{3.007}{15.386} \right)^2$$

(STDEV of Y is 15.386)

## Analysis of Variance

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio
Model	1	1830.6557	1830.66	202.4624
Error	7	63.2937	9.04	Prob > F
C. Total	8	1893.9494		<.0001*

## The *Parameter Estimates* option

189

Red triangle next to *Response Y* → *Regression Reports* → *Parameter Estimates*

Parameter Estimates				
Term	Estimate	Std Error	t Ratio	Prob> t
Intercept	0.8386661	2.150023	0.39	0.7081
X	0.4891205	0.034375	14.23	<.0001*

- Estimates of the slope and intercept
- Line of best fit is  $Y = 0.8387 + 0.4891 X$

- P values for the slope and intercept
- In simple regression, the *Analysis of Variance* P value is the P value for the slope
- In this example, the slope of the line is significantly different from 0, very strong evidence of a correlation between Y and X.
- The intercept is *not* significantly different from 0. This term should be removed from the model equation.

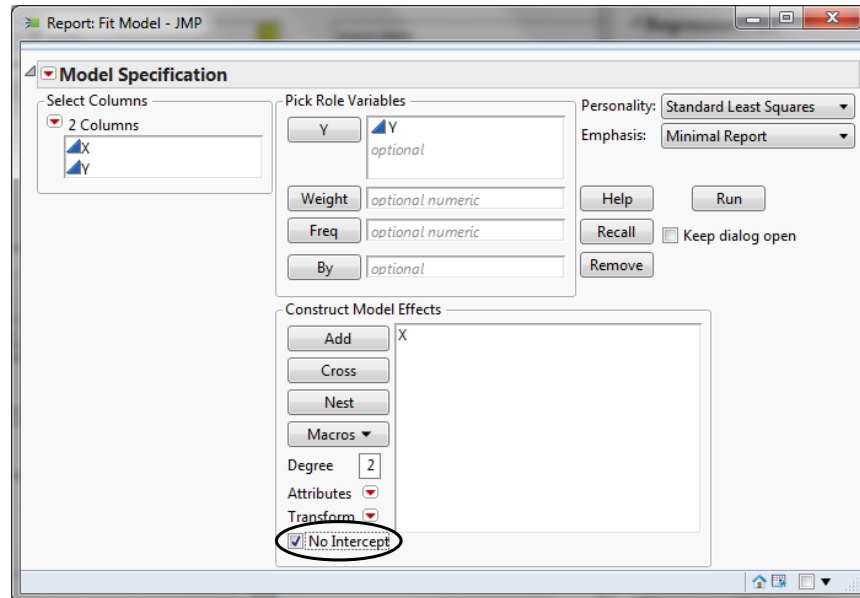
Notes

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## Removing the intercept from the model equation

191

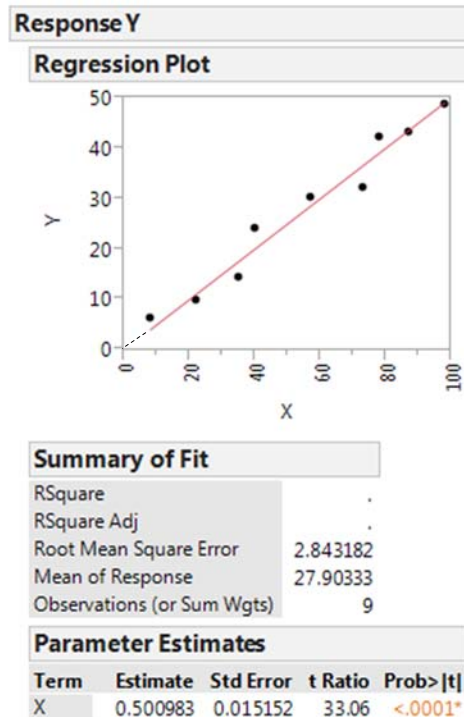
Red triangle next to *Response Y* → *Model Dialog* → check *No Intercept* → Run



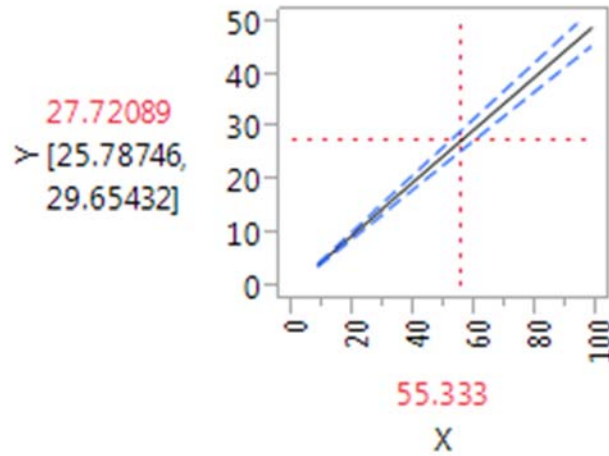
## This is called "regression through the origin"

192

- Now the line of best fit is  $Y = 0.5010X$
- When  $X = 0$ ,  $Y = 0$
- This makes physical sense in some situations

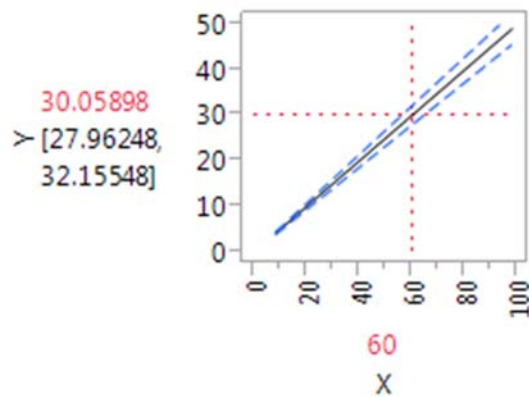


### Prediction Profiler



- Calculates predicted mean Y as a function of X
- Calculates confidence intervals for predicted means

### Prediction Profiler

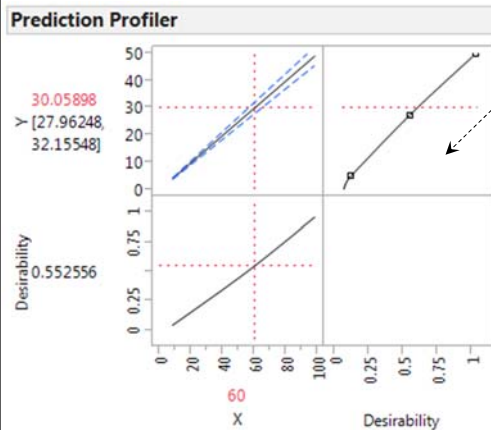


- Predicted mean Y (based on the data) is 30.06
- With 95% confidence, the population mean lies between 27.96 and 32.16

## Simple example of optimization

195

- Suppose we want to find the X value that predicts a mean Y value of 25
- Red triangle next to *Prediction Profiler* → *Desirability Functions*



- Double click in here (don't touch the line plot)
- Modify the **Response Goal** dialog as shown below
- Click OK

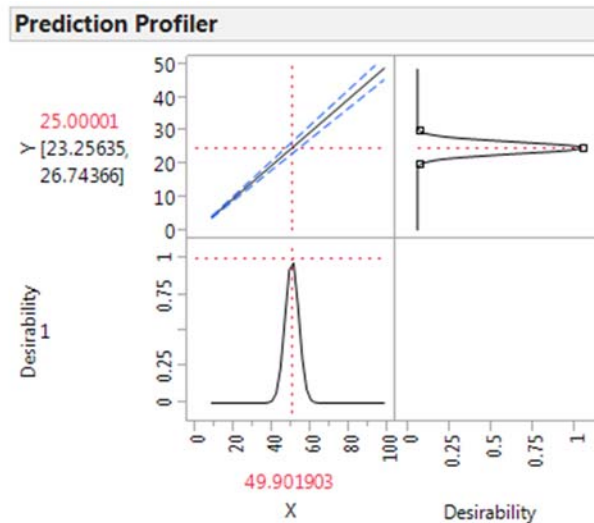
Y	Values	Desirability
High:	30	0.0183
Middle:	25	1
Low:	20	0.0183
Importance:	1	

OK Cancel Help

## Optimization (cont'd)

196

- Red triangle next to *Prediction Profiler* → *Maximize Desirability*



- Predicted mean Y of 25 is achieved at  $X = 49.9$
- With 95% confidence, this population mean lies between 23.3 and 26.7

## Exercise 9.1

197

- a) Find the X value that predicts a mean Y value of 35. Give the confidence limits for the predicted mean.
- b) The overall standard deviation of Y is 15.4. The RMSE from the regression is 2.84. Which of these would be the standard deviation of Y if we controlled X to a constant value?
- c) Save your script, close and save the data table.

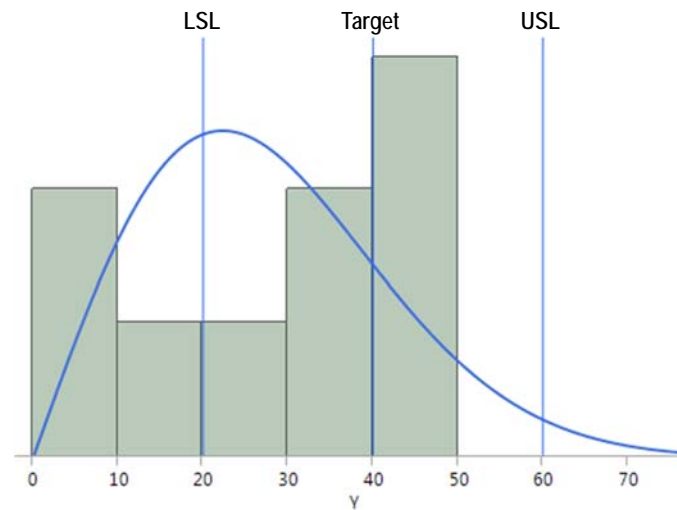
## Exercise 9.2

198

- Open *LSSV2 data sets \ production vs capacity* (in JMP).
- (a) Fit a regression for *Production qty* as a function of *Capacity utilized (%)*. Is there a correlation? Give the appropriate P value and strength of evidence.
  - (b) Decide whether or not to remove the intercept from the model equation. Support your decision with the appropriate P value.
  - (c) Use your model from (b) to find the capacity utilization level that predicts a mean daily production quantity of 3500. Give the confidence limits.
  - (d) The overall standard deviation of *Production qty* is 733.5. The RMSE from the analysis in (c) is 406.06. Which of these would be the standard deviation if capacity utilization never changed?
  - (e) Save your scripts, close and save the data table.

## 10 Using the RMSE

199



Suppose we are not happy with our current process capability

Mean = 27.9, Std dev = 15.4

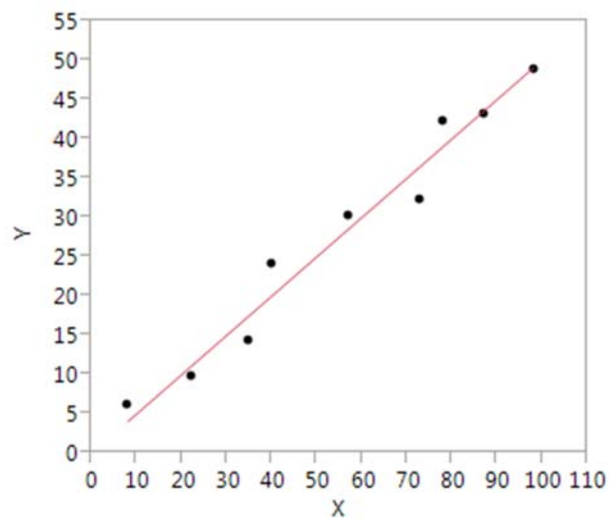
Defective in the data: 33.3%

Predicted from distribution curve: 35.8%

## RMSE (cont'd)

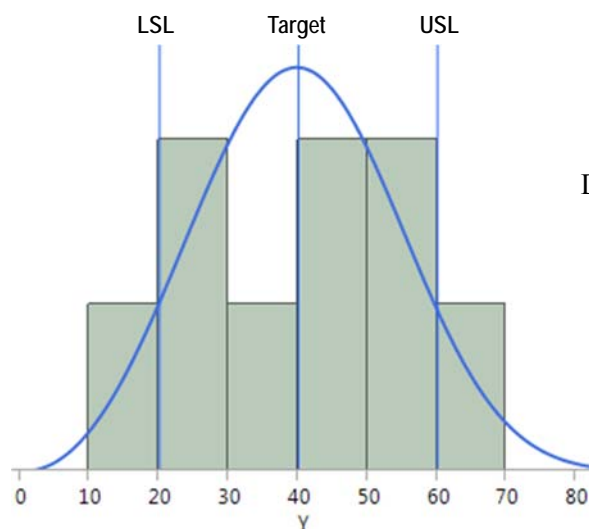
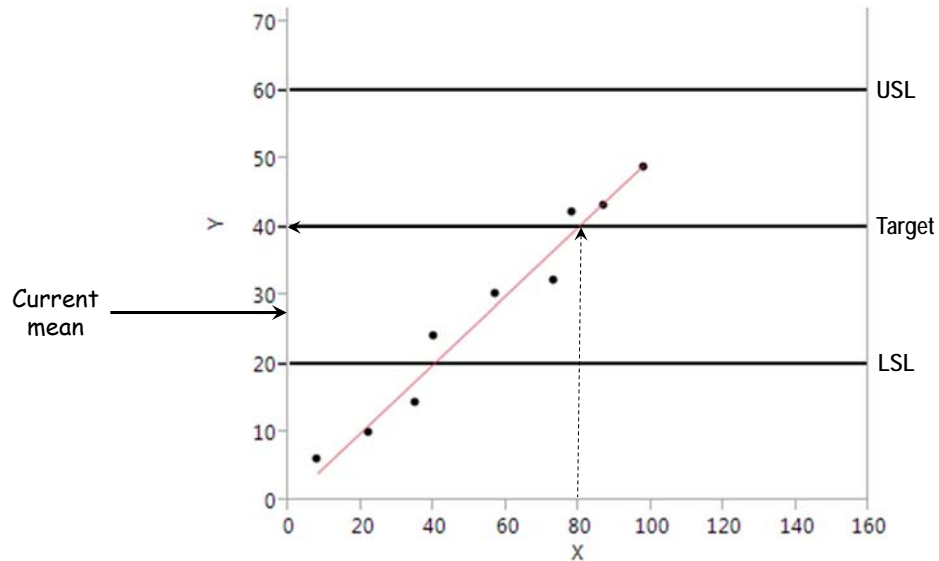
200

Suppose Y is correlated with a controllable X variable



How can we use the regression to improve the Y capability?

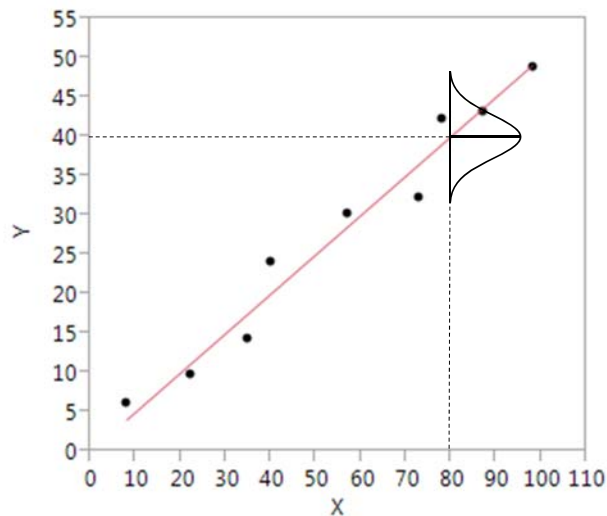
If we control X at 80, the mean will change from 27.9 to 40



Mean = 40.0  
 Std dev = 15.4  
 Defective in the data: 22.2%  
 Distribution curve: 15.9%

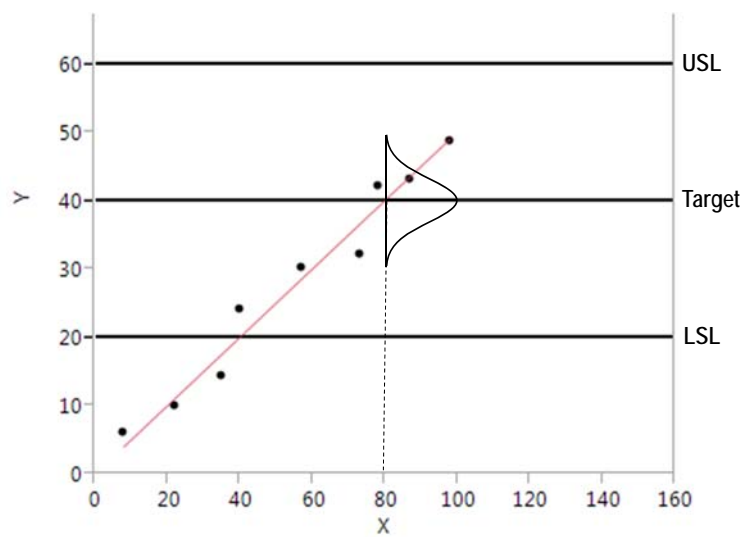
- Moving mean Y to the center of the spec range does reduce % defective
- But is the mean the only thing that changes when we control X at 80?

By definition, RMSE is the standard deviation of  $Y$  that would result from eliminating the variation in  $X$



$$\sigma = \text{RMSE} = 2.84$$

When we control  $X$  at 80, we don't just move the mean from 27.9 to 40 — we also reduce the standard deviation from 15.4 to 2.84 !



Hmm . . . how do we calculate the improved % defective?

1. Enter the quantities in the YELLOW cells.

2. The other values are calculated for you.

LSL	20
USL	60
Mean	40
Standard deviation	2.843182
Degrees of freedom	8

	LSL	USL	Total
Population % out of spec	0.005	0.005	0.011
Population PPM out of spec	54.4	54.4	108.8

PPM defective = 109

These calculations can be sensitive to round-off error. Don't round off the mean and standard deviation when you enter them into the calculator.

Error DF from the Analysis of Variance

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio
Model	1	8836.6440	8836.64	1093.146
Error	8	64.6695	8.08	Prob > F
C. Total	9	8901.3135		<.0001*

Tested against reduced model: Y=0

## Exercise 10.1

207

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ production vs capacity.jmp*.

- Find the best fitting distribution for *Production qty*.
- What is the predicted % of days on which production quantity will fall below 3000?
- What is the % of *data values* that fall below 3000?
- We found earlier that capacity utilization 52.8% gives a mean daily production quantity of 3500. The RMSE was 406.06, the error degrees of freedom was 35. Assuming 52.8% capacity utilization, what is the predicted % of days on which production quantity will be less than 3000?
- Save your scripts, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 10.2

208

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ outgassing process* (in JMP). *Current* (the Y variable) is the current required to heat a filament to a target temperature. *Resist* (the X variable) is the electrical resistance of the filament. *Machine* is the processing unit. This example shows how to reduce % defective by separate optimization of each machine.

- Find the % of *Current* data values that fall outside the interval (1.9, 2.1).
- Fit a regression for *Current* as a function of *Resist*, using *Machine* as the *By variable*. For each machine, give the RMSE, the error degrees of freedom, and the resistance that predicts a mean current of 2.

Machine	RMSE	DF	Resistance	% Outside
A				
B				
C				

- Assuming we use the indicated resistance values, find for each machine the % of *Current* values predicted to fall outside the interval (1.9, 2.1).
- Save your scripts, close and save the data table.

## 11 Multiple Regression

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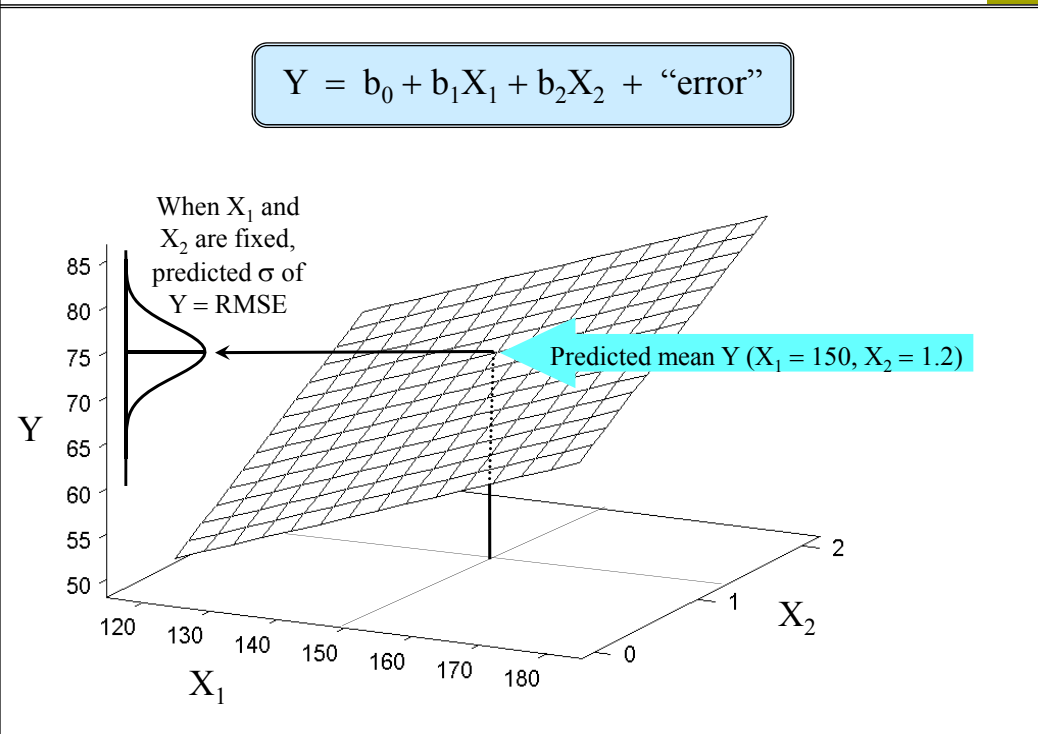
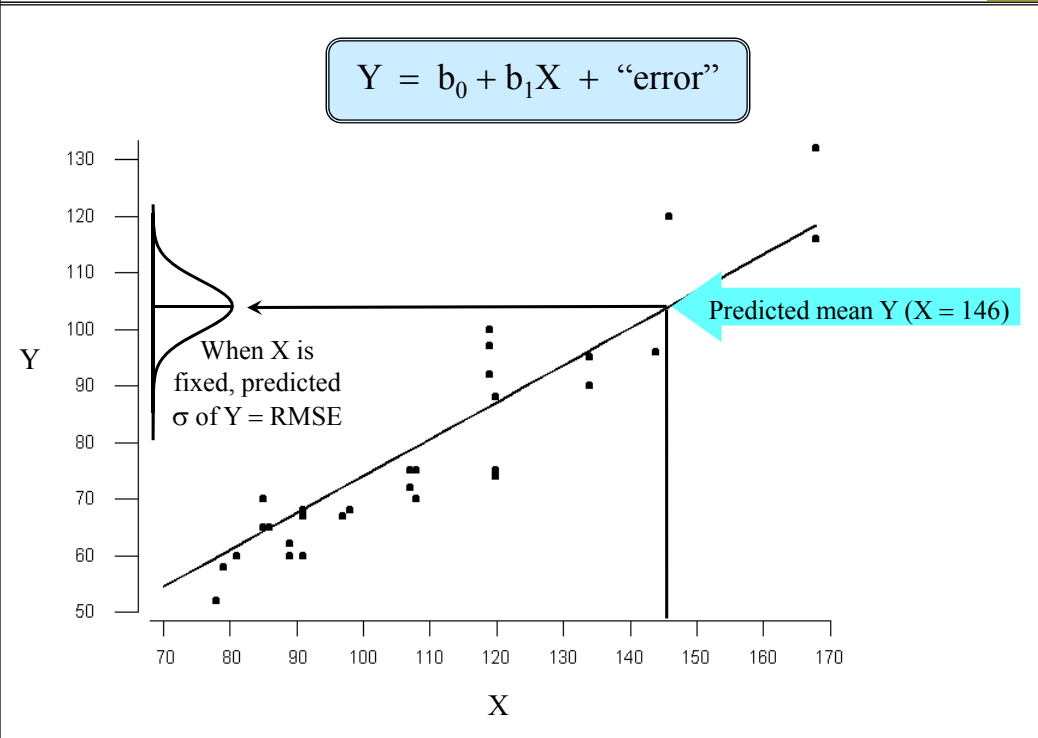
- Multiple regression model
- Examples
- Fitting regression models
- Interactive effects
- Predicted values and uncertainty
- Modeling and optimization

### Multiple regression model

210

$$Y = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \dots + b_kX_k + \text{“error”}$$

Y	$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k$	$b_0$	$b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k$	“Error”
Dependent variable	Independent variables	Intercept	Regression coefficients	Mean = 0
Response variable	Explanatory variables	Parameter	Parameters	Standard deviation = $\sigma$ (RMSE)
Output	Inputs			Distribution = Normal
	Predictors			
	Regressors			
	Factors (in DOE)			



## Multiple regression examples


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Y	X <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>3</sub>	X <sub>4</sub>	X <sub>5</sub>	X <sub>6</sub>
<i>Life of cutting tool</i>	RPM	Tool type	Material	Feed rate		
<i>MPG</i>	Displacement	Horsepower	Weight			
<i>Salary</i>	Education	Experience	Performance	Seniority	Gender	
<i>Vending machine service time</i>	Amount of product stocked	Distance from truck to machine				

*Fill in examples of interest to you*

## Regression model equations

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Y	X <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>3</sub>	X <sub>4</sub>	X <sub>5</sub>
MPG	Displacement (D)	Horsepower (H)	Weight (W)		
$\text{MPG} = b_0 + b_1D + b_2H + b_3W + \text{error}$					
Y	X <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>3</sub>	X <sub>4</sub>	X <sub>5</sub>
Bond strength	Temperature (T)	Dwell time (D)	T × D	T <sup>2</sup>	D <sup>2</sup>
$\text{Bond} = b_0 + b_1T + b_2D + b_3TD + b_4T^2 + b_5D^2 + \text{error}$ <p style="text-align: center;">  </p> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Response surface model (RSM) with two continuous Xs</b></p>					

Nonlinear model	Equivalent linear model
$Y = b_0 (X_1)^{b_1} (X_2)^{b_2}$	$\log(Y) = \log(b_0) + b_1 \log(X_1) + b_2 \log(X_2)$
$Y = b_0 (b_1)^{X_1} (b_2)^{X_2}$	$\log(Y) = \log(b_0) + \log(b_1)X_1 + \log(b_2)X_2$

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ teenage growth* (in JMP)

Y	X <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>
height	age	gender
weight	age	gender

teenage growth

510 Cols

40/0 Rows

	name	age	gender	height	weight
1	ALFRED	14	M	64	99
2	ALICE	13	F	61	107
3	AMY	15	F	64	112
4	BARBARA	13	F	60	112
5	CAROL	14	F	63	84
6	CHRIS	14	M	64	99
7	CLAY	15	M	66	105
8	DANNY	15	M	66	106
9	DAVID	13	M	59	79
10	EDWARD	14	M	68	112
11	ELIZABETH	14	F	62	91
12	FREDERICK	14	M	63	93
13	HENRY	14	M	65	119
14	JACLYN	12	F	66	145
15	JAMES	12	M	61	128
16	JANE	12	F	55	74
17	JEFFREY	14	M	69	113
18	JOE	13	M	63	105
19	JOHN	13	M	65	98
20	JUDY	14	F	61	81
21	KATIE	12	F	59	95
22	KIRK	17	M	68	134
23	LAWRENCE	17	M	70	172
24	LESUE	14	F	65	142
25	LEWIS	14	M	64	92
26	LILLIE	12	F	52	64
27	LINDA	17	F	62	116
28	LOUISE	12	F	61	122

Say we want to model *height* as a function of *age* and *gender*

Analyze  
↓  
Fit Model

Fit Model

Model Specification

Select Columns:

- ☒ name
- ☒ age
- ☒ gender
- ☒ height
- ☒ weight

Pick Role Variables:

Y: ☒ height (optional)

Weight: optional Numerical

Freq: optional Numerical

By: optional

Personality: Standard Least Squares

Emphasis: Minimal Report

Help Run Model Remove

Construct Model Effects:

Add ☒ age ☒ gender

Cross

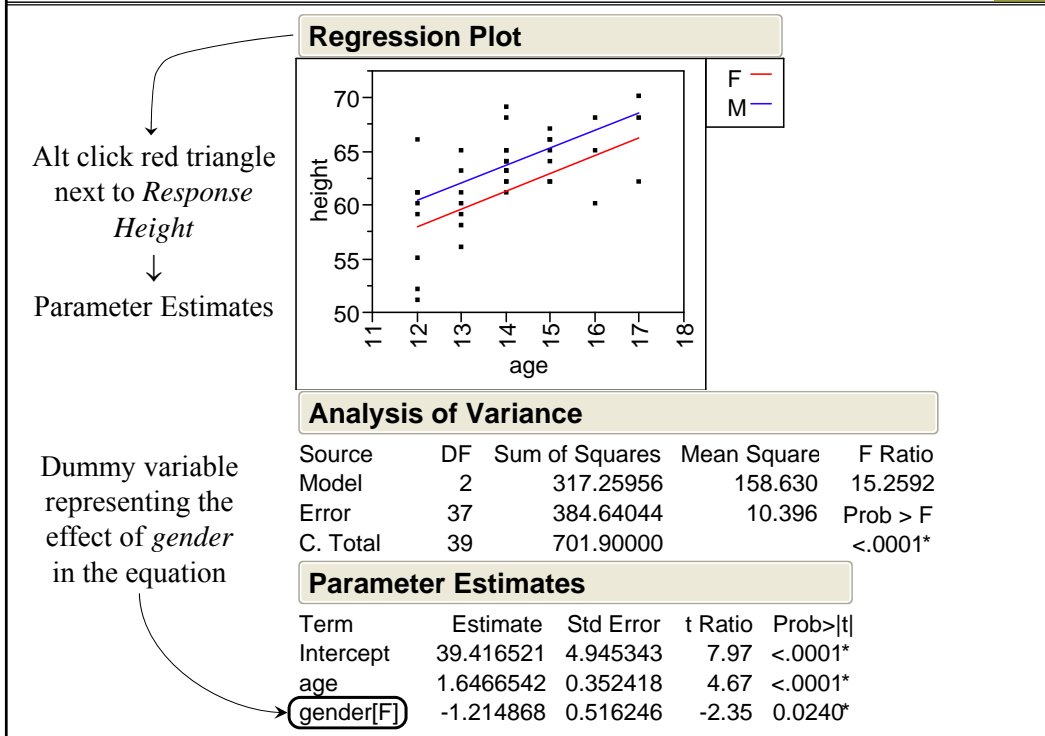
Nest

Macros

Degree 2

Attributes

☐ No Intercept



$$\text{gender}[F] = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if gender is F} \\ -1 & \text{if gender is M} \end{cases}$$

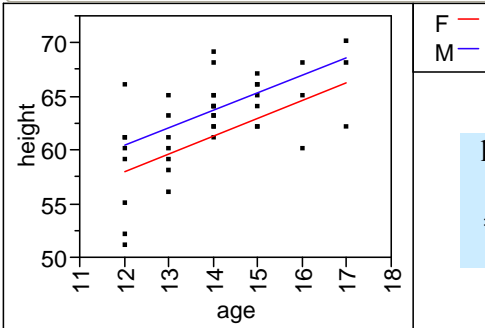
$$\text{height} = b_0 + b_1 \text{age} + b_2 \text{gender}[F]$$

$$\text{height} = \begin{cases} (b_0 + b_2) + b_1 \text{age} & \text{if gender is F} \\ (b_0 - b_2) + b_1 \text{age} & \text{if gender is M} \end{cases}$$

## Constructing the model equation

221

### Regression Plot



height

$$= \begin{cases} 38.21 + 1.65 \text{ age} & \text{if gender} = F \\ 40.63 + 1.65 \text{ age} & \text{if gender} = M \end{cases}$$

### Analysis of Variance

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio
Model	2	317.25956	158.630	15.2592
Error	37	384.64044	10.396	Prob > F
C. Total	39	701.90000		<.0001*

### Parameter Estimates

Term	Estimate	Std Error	t Ratio	Prob >  t
Intercept	39.416521	4.945343	7.97	<.0001*
age	1.6466542	0.352418	4.67	<.0001*
gender[F]	-1.214868	0.516246	-2.35	0.0240*

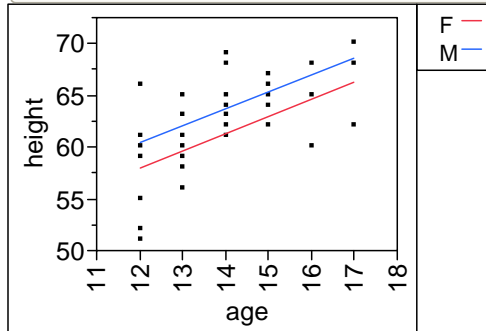
height

$$= 39.42 + 1.65 \text{ age} - 1.21 \text{ gender}[F]$$

Notes

222

## Regression Plot



## Parameter Estimates

Term	Estimate	Std Error	t Ratio	Prob> t
Intercept	39.416521	4.945343	7.97	<.0001*
age	1.6466542	0.352418	4.67	<.0001*
gender[F]	-1.214868	0.516246	-2.35	0.0240*

- With this model, the growth curves are parallel
- That is an *assumption* of the model, not a result of the analysis
- How do we *test* for parallel curves?

$$\text{height} = b_0 + b_1 \text{age} + b_2 \text{gender[F]} + b_3 \text{age*gender[F]}$$

This product term allows different slopes for M and F

## Adding an interactive effect

225

**Model Specification**

Select Columns: Name, Age, Gender, Height, Weight

Pick Role Variables: Y (Height), optional (optional numeric), optional numeric, optional numeric, optional

Personality: Standard Least Squares, Emphasis: Minimal Report

Buttons: Help, Run, Recall, Keep dialog open, Remove

Construct Model Effects: Add, Cross, Nest, Macros, Degree 2, Attributes, Transform, No Intercept

Interactive effect added to model: Age\*Gender

1. Highlight, 2. Highlight, 3. Click

## Non-parallel growth curves

226

**Regression Plot**

height = 39.46 + 1.64 age + 7.16 gender[F] - 0.60(age)(gender[F])

**Parameter Estimates**

Term	Estimate	Std Error	t Ratio	Prob> t
Intercept	39.457057	4.812681	8.20	<.0001*
age	1.6360307	0.343014	4.77	<.0001*
gender[F]	-1.227546	0.502444	-2.44	0.0196*
(age-13.975)*gender[F]	-0.600896	0.343014	-1.75	0.0883

height = 39.46 + 1.64age - 1.23 gender[F] - 0.60(age - 13.98)gender[F]

height = { 46.62 + 1.04 age if gender = F  
32.30 + 2.24 age if gender = M

**Response height****Parameter Estimates**

Term	Estimate	Std Error	t Ratio	Prob> t
Intercept	39.457057	4.812681	8.20	<.0001
age	1.6360307	0.343014	4.77	<.0001
gender[F]	-1.227546	0.502444	-2.44	0.0196
gender[F]*(age-13.975)	-0.600896	0.343014	-1.75	0.0883

Some evidence that growth curves for girls and boys have different slopes

**Effect Tests**

Source	Nparm	DF	Sum of Squares	F Ratio	Prob > F
age	1	1	223.96652	22.7488	<.0001
gender	1	1	58.76589	5.9690	0.0196
gender*age	1	1	30.21331	3.0688	0.0883

Same information in a more compact format

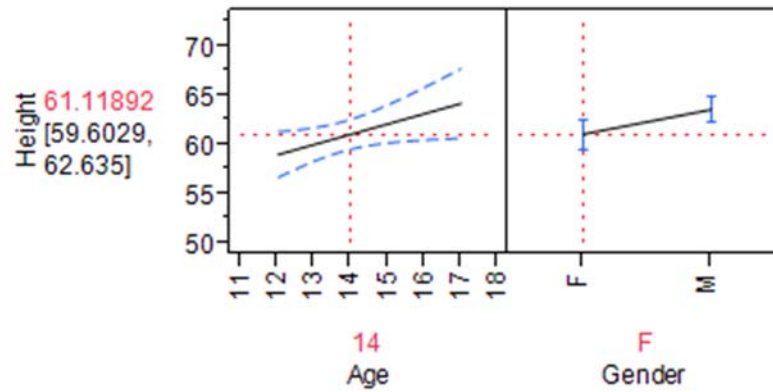
**Summary of Fit without Interaction**

RSquare	0.452001
RSquare Adj	0.42238
Root Mean Square Error	3.224234
Mean of Response	62.55
Observations (or Sum Wgts)	40

✓ Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> went up  
✓ RMSE went down

**Summary of Fit with Interaction**

RSquare	0.495046
RSquare Adj	0.452967
Root Mean Square Error	3.137706
Mean of Response	62.55
Observations (or Sum Wgts)	40

**Prediction Profiler**

Predicted avg. height in the population of 14 year old girls	61.12
95% confidence interval for avg. height of 14 year old girls	[59.60, 62.64] 61.12 $\pm$ 1.52

The model without interaction gave  $61.25 \pm 1.55$  (slightly larger margin of error).

## Exercise 11.1

231

- a) In the table below, record the Adjusted  $R^2$  and RMSE from the analysis of *height* in this section. Also, record the P values from *Effects Tests*. Run the same analysis for *weight* and record the corresponding results.

Response	Adj. $R^2$	RMSE	P values		
			Age	Gender	Age*Gender
Height					
Weight					

- b) Which variable (*height* or *weight*) has the greater proportion of variation explained by *age* and *gender*?
- c) Explain why it wouldn't make sense to compare the two models in terms of RMSE.

## Exercise 11.1 (cont'd)

232

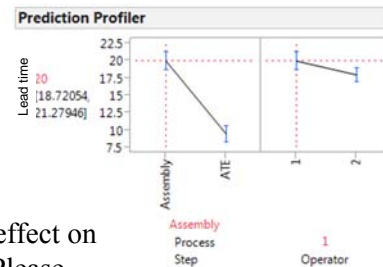
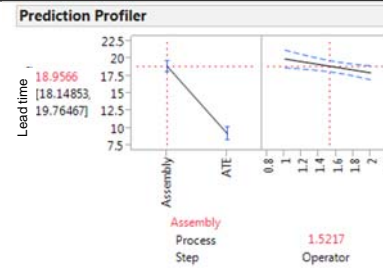
- d) Both *age* and *gender* were statistically significant for predicting *height*. Is this true for *weight*?
- e) For *height* we found evidence that the growth curves for girls and boys have different slopes. Is this true for *weight* as well? Give the P value that is relevant to this question, and explain what it means.
- f) Give the predicted average *weight* in the population of 15-year-old boys. Give a 95% confidence interval for this average.
- g) Save your scripts, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 11.2

233

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ lead time 2* (in JMP).

- Fit a model for *Lead time* including the terms *Process Step*, *Operator*, and their interactive effect.
- If you got the upper right profiler, you did something wrong. (What is the correct modeling type for *Operator*?) The lower right profiler is the correct one.
- Select *Model Dialog* on the *Response* red triangle menu. Remove terms under *Effects Tests* with P values exceeding 0.15 (use the *Remove* button). Run the model again. Which terms are left?
- Based on the profiler, which factor has the larger effect on lead time? Does this correlate with the P values? Please explain.
- Save your script, close and save the data table.



## Exercise 11.3

234

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ number and size of defects.jmp*.

- Fit a model for *Max size* including the terms *Welder*, *# Defects*, their interactive effect, and the quadratic effect for *# Defects* (cross it with itself). This is the *response surface model* for one categorical factor and one continuous factor.
- Select *Model Dialog* on the *Response* red triangle menu. Remove terms under *Effects Tests* with P value exceeding 0.15 (use the *Remove* button). Run the model again. Which terms are left in the model?
- Based on the profiler, which factor has the larger effect on *Max size*? Does this correlate with the P values? Please explain.
- Save your script, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 11.4

235

In this example you will analyze data from an optimization experiment concerning the removal of excess metal from castings by belt grinding.

The belt supplier had been recommending that belts be discarded when they are “50% used up.” This rule was based on tests conducted by the supplier to define the usage point at which the total of labor and belt costs will be minimized. One of the grinders thought the supplier’s rule caused grinders to discard belts too soon. Aside from being suspicious that the supplier just wanted to sell more belts, he argued that the supplier’s tests did not take into account the time lost to belt changes.

This grinder developed a new standard under which belts would be discarded only after they were “75% used up.” He wanted to do a comparative study to show that his method was cheaper overall. After he explains the study with his fellow grinders, 3 additional factors are added to the experiment.

Each casting in the experiment was weighed before and after the grinding operation. A technician kept track of how many belts were used and how long it took the grinder to complete each casting. From this information the total cost per unit of metal removed was calculated for each casting.

## Exercise 11.4 (cont'd)

236

- Y variable: *cost per unit of metal removed*
- X variables:

➤ Contact wheel land-groove ratio (LGR):	Low	or	High
➤ Contact wheel material (MATL):	Steel	or	Rubber
➤ Belt usage limit (USAGE):	"50%"	or	"75%"
➤ Belt grit size (GRIT):	30	or	50
- Open *LSSV2 data sets \ belt grinding*
- Run the *Fit Model* script provided in the left panel, run the model. This is the response surface model for 4 categorical Xs. Remove insignificant terms ( $P > 0.15$ ) then re-run the model. Which terms are left?
- Use the *Prediction Profiler* to find the minimum cost factor settings.
- What do you expect the mean and standard deviation of *Cost* to be after implementing the optimal factor settings?
- Save your script, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 11.5

237

In this example you will analyze data from an optimization experiment concerning the bond strength of potato chip bags.

Chips 'R' Us was receiving customer complaints about stale chips, especially from customers on airplanes. They traced the problem to the bag sealing process. The current process involved a temperature of 150°C, a pressure of 100 psi and a dwell time of 1.1 secs. The current average bond strength was about 85 psi.

Process Engineer Chip Kettle ran an experiment to increase the bond strength. Production Manager Justin Thyme reminded Chip that he would very much like to avoid an increase in the dwell time.

Justin is able to free up a bag sealer for only so much time each shift. Chip realizes he will need two shifts to complete the experiment. He decides to include *Shift* as an additional variable in the analysis just in case there is an operator and/or equipment effect.

## Exercise 11.5 (cont'd)

238

- Y variable: *bond strength*
- X variables and feasible ranges:

➤ Temperature (TEMP):	120 to 180
➤ Pressure (PRESS):	50 to 150
➤ Dwell time (DWELL):	0.2 to 2.0
➤ Shift:	1 or 2
- *Open LSSV2 data sets \ heat sealing 1*
- Run the *Fit Model* script provided in the left panel, run the model. This is the response model for 3 continuous Xs. Remove insignificant terms from the model ( $P > 0.15$ ), then re-run it. Which terms are left?
- Use the *Prediction Profiler* to maximize the average bond strength. If your solution requires a long dwell time, find another solution with a short dwell time.
- What do you expect the mean and standard deviation of *bond* to be after implementing the optimal factor settings?
- Save your script, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 11.6

239

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ outgassing process.jmp*. *Current* (the Y variable) is the electrical current required to heat a filament to a specified temperature. *Resist* (one of the X variables) is the electrical resistance of the filament. *Machine* (the other X variable) identifies which of three processing units was used. We want to develop a model for *Current* as a function of *Resist* and *Machine*.

- Fit a response surface model for *Current*. (The terms will be *Resist*, *Machine*, the interaction term *Resist\*Machine*, and the quadratic term *Resist\*Resist*. To get the quadratic term, cross *Resist* with itself.)
- Select *Model Dialog* on the *Response* red triangle menu. Remove any terms under *Effects Tests* with P value exceeding 0.15. (Use the *Remove* button.) Run the model again. Record the RMSE.
- Use the *Prediction Profiler* to find the predicted average *Current* for each machine if we always use filaments with resistance 52.

## Exercise 11.6 (cont'd)

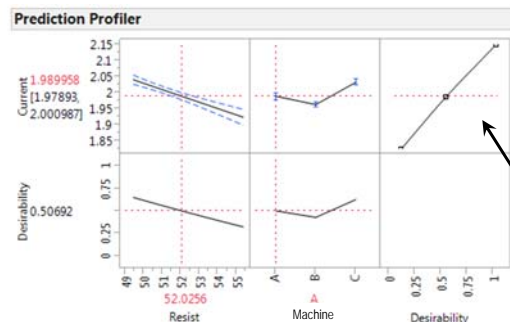
240

- The target value for *Current* is 2. For each machine, we want to find the resistance for which the average current is 2. On the *Prediction Profiler* red triangle, select *Desirability Functions*. It should look like this:

- Double click in the upper right hand panel of the profiler. (Try to avoid the plotted line.) You should get the dialog shown below.

Current	Values	Desirability
High:	2.15	0.9819
Middle:	1.9875	0.5
Low:	1.825	0.066
Importance:	1	

- Modify the dialog as shown to the right, then select OK. Proceed to the next slide.

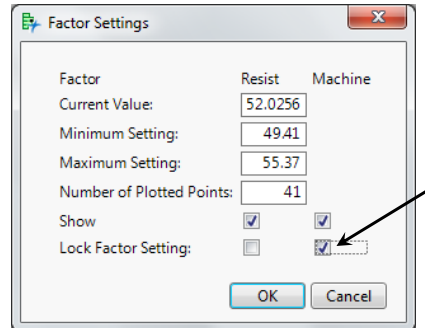


Current	Values	Desirability
High:	2.05	0.0183
Middle:	2	1
Low:	1.95	0.0183
Importance:	1	

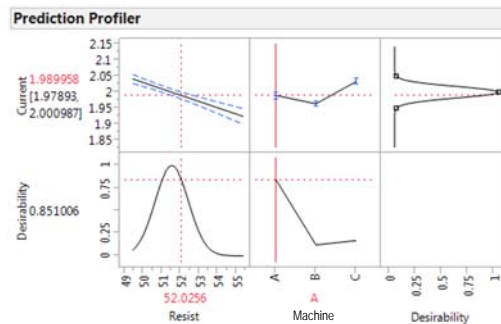
## Exercise 11.6 (cont'd)

241

- g) On the *Prediction Profiler* red triangle, select *Reset Factor Grid*. We want to lock the factor setting for *Machine*, so check the *Lock Factor Setting* box as shown here.



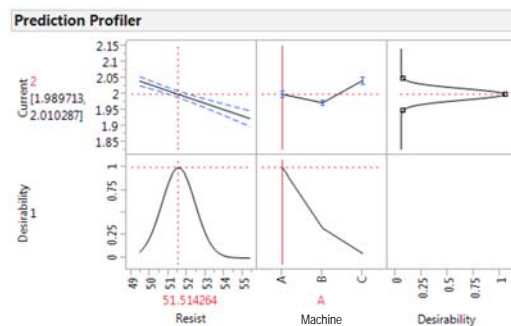
- h) The vertical line for *Machine* should now be solid instead of dotted. This will allow you to optimize *Resist* separately for each machine. On the *Prediction Profiler* red triangle, select *Maximize Desirability*. Proceed to the next slide.



## Exercise 11.6 (cont'd)

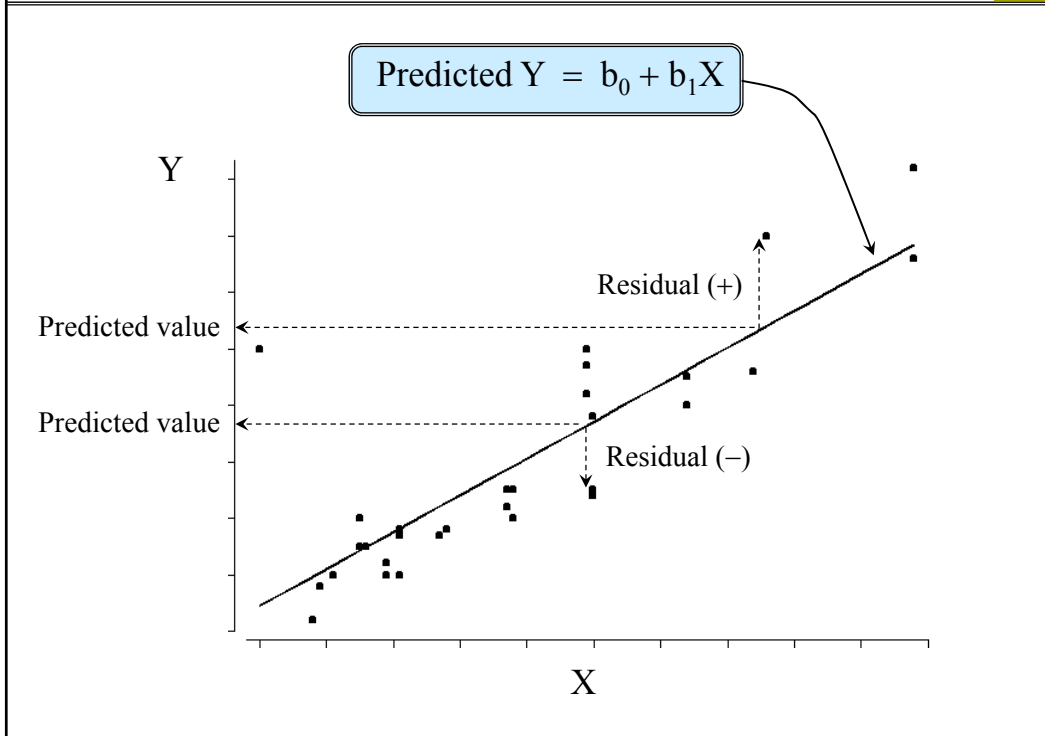
242

- i) The optimal resistance value for machine A is 51.5. Move the solid vertical line to machine B, find the optimal resistance value. Do the same for machine C.
- j) What will the average current be if we always use the optimal resistance values?
- k) What will the standard deviation of current be if we always use the optimal resistance values?
- l) Save your scripts, close and save the data table.



## 12 Transforming the Y variable

243



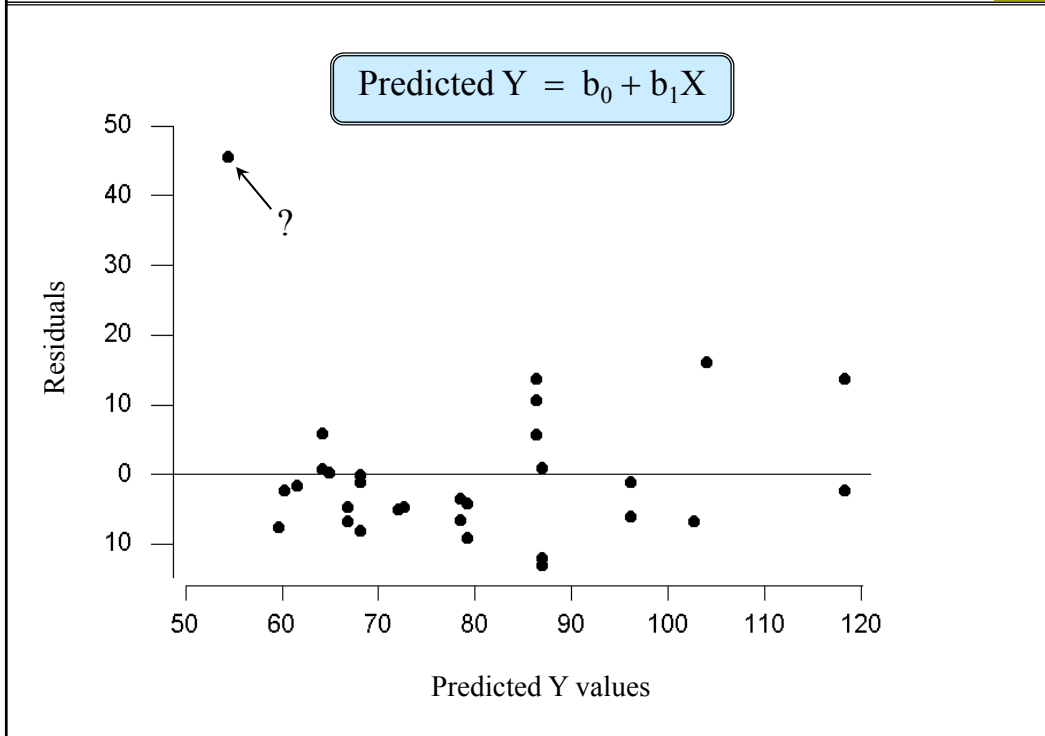
### Notes

244

A fitted model gives the predicted mean value of the response variable as a function of the predictor variables. These predicted mean values are also called *predicted values*, or just *predicted* for short. The *residual value* is the data value minus the predicted value. Residual values are called *residuals* for short.

These terms are easiest to visualize in the simple linear model shown above. A predicted value is the fitted line evaluated at some  $X$  value. A residual is the difference between a measured  $Y$  value and the predicted value at the corresponding  $X$ .

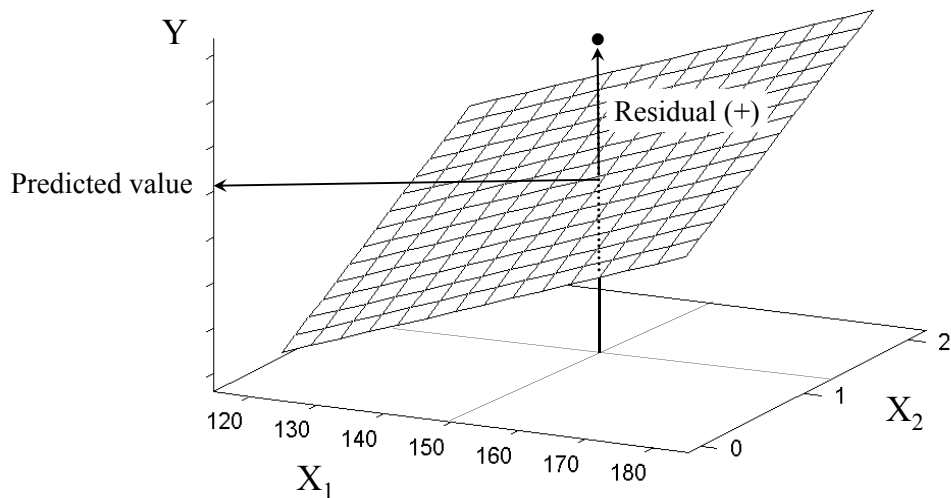
Residuals contain information about the magnitude and direction of variability in the data relative to the fitted model. An unusually large residual might signal a measurement error, data entry error or some other type of outlier. A systematic trend or pattern in the residuals might signal an inadequacy in the fitted model.



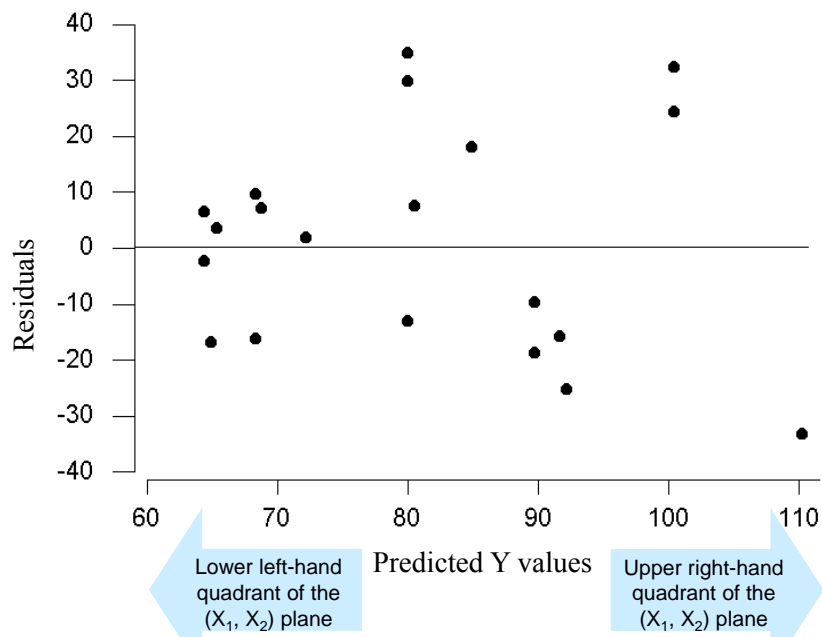
Here the residuals from the preceding slide are plotted against the predicted values. This is a good all-around diagnostic plot. “Healthy” residuals look like random scatter around 0—like a control chart with no assignable causes. Here, it looks like there might be a suspicious data point. If it turns out to be just a data entry error, we simply enter the correct value, then all is well. Most of the time it’s not that simple. When you have an outlier of unknown origin, it helps to run the analysis with and without the questionable data point. If you’re lucky, the results will be pretty much the same both ways, hence no worries.

If excluding the outlier does make a significant difference in the results, then you have a hard decision to make. The official rule is: leave the data point in unless you can identify the cause. The idea is to throw it out only if you can demonstrate to an impartial jury that it does not come from the population you want to study. This is the “pure” approach. This should be tempered with the following practical consideration: you don’t want your results to be determined completely by one extreme outlier, even if you can’t explain it.

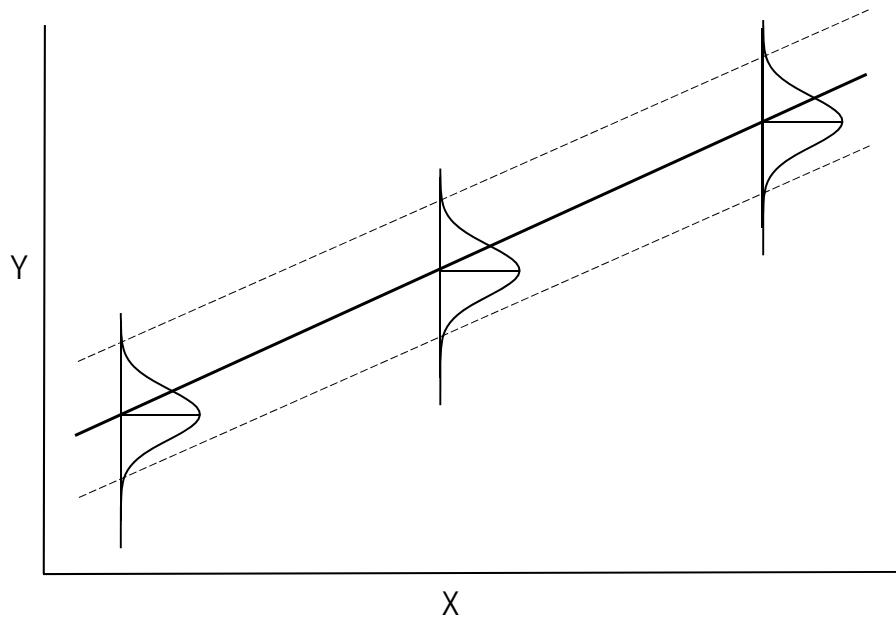
$$\text{Predicted } Y = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2$$



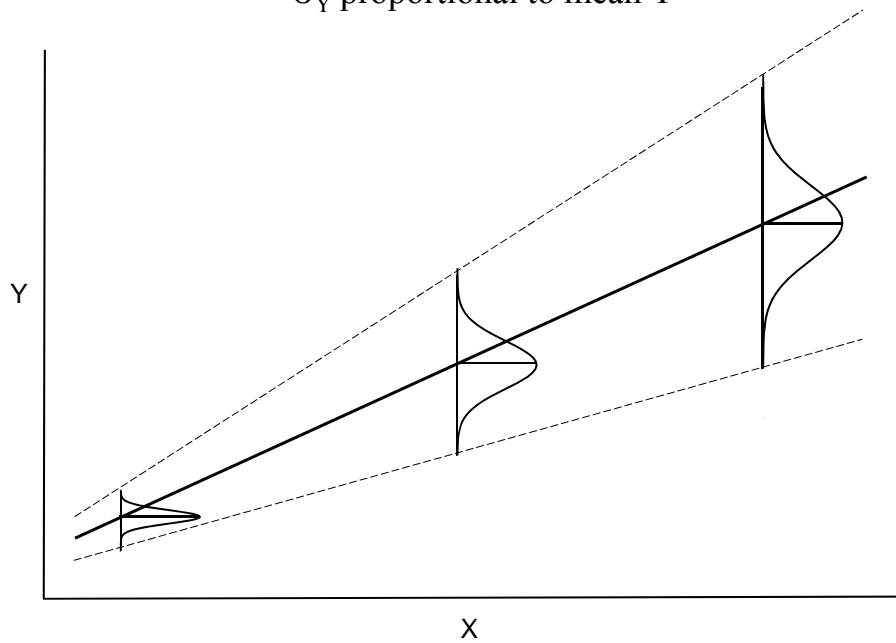
*Plot of residuals by predicted for any number of Xs*

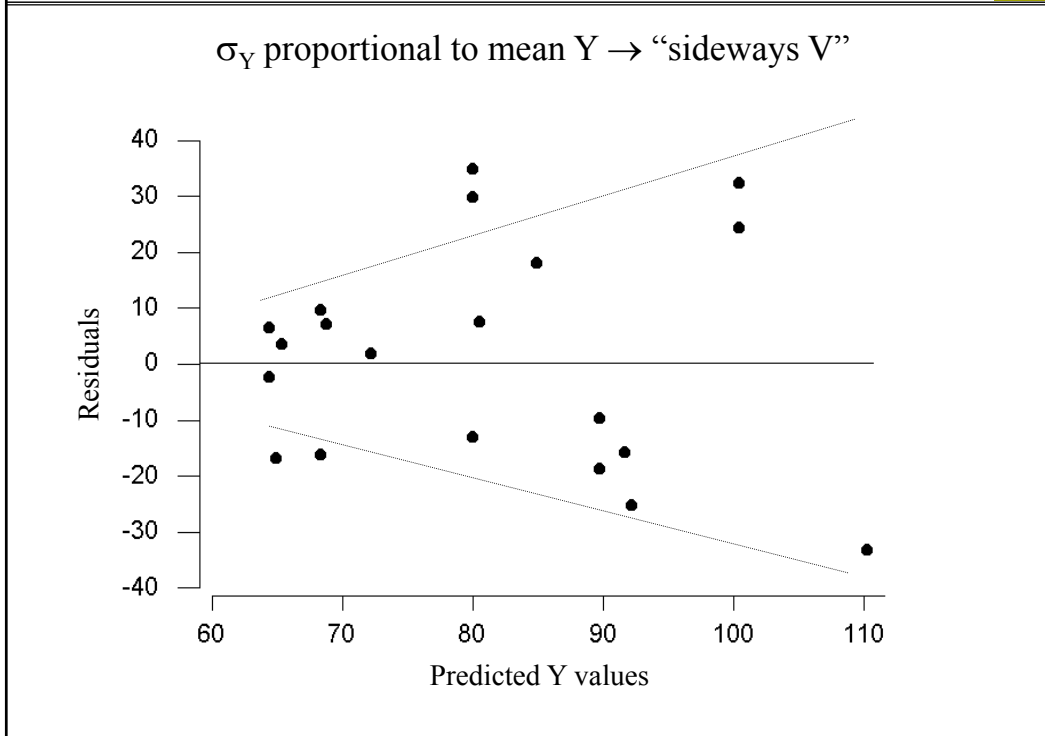


$\sigma_Y$  constant (does not depend on the  $X$ s)



$\sigma_Y$  proportional to mean  $Y$





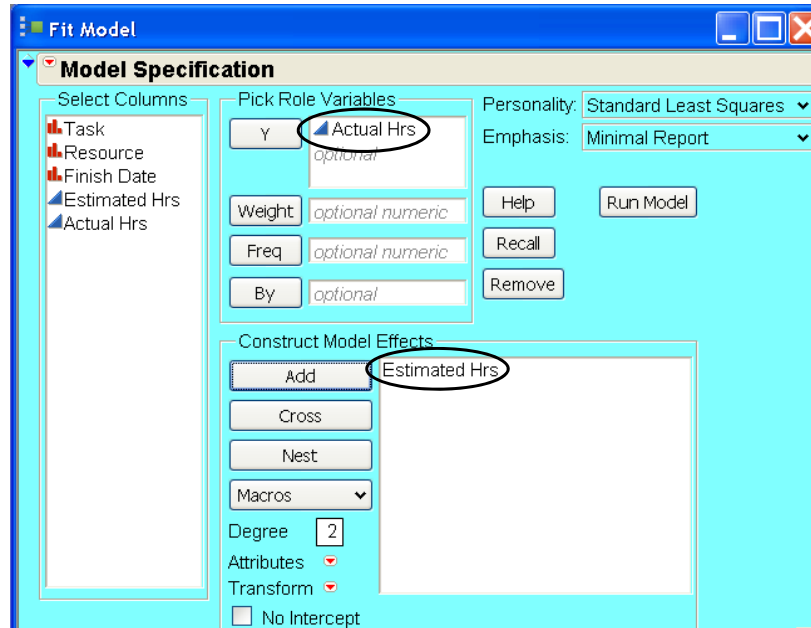
The standard assumption in all comparison and correlation analyses involving a quantitative  $Y$  variable is that the noise (unexplained/error/residual) variation follows a Normal distribution with mean 0 and a standard deviation that does not depend on the  $X$  variables.

This simple model has served us well. However, when Normality or constant  $\sigma$  is grossly violated, something must be done. The most common remedy is to use  $\log(Y)$  as the dependent variable instead of  $Y$ . This “trick of the trade” is simple and, in most cases, effective.

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ actual vs estimated* (in JMP)

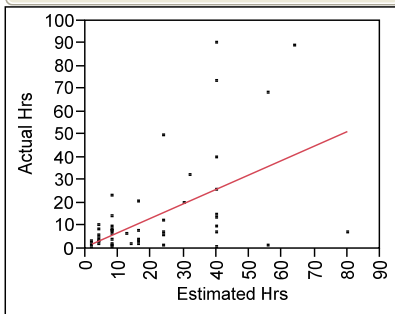
We want to see how accurately we can estimate the time it takes to do certain tasks

Analyze  
↓  
Fit Model



## Response Actual Hrs

### Regression Plot



### Summary of Fit

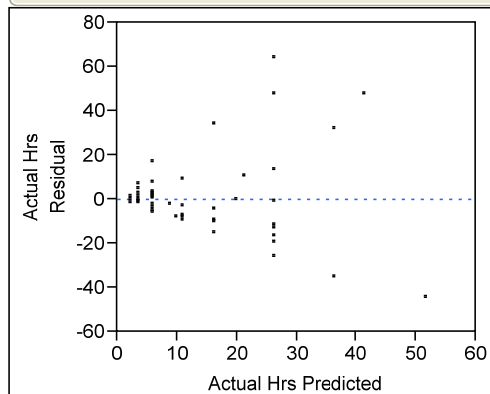
RSquare 0.307347  
RSquare Adj 0.296176  
Root Mean Square Error 16.95281  
Mean of Response 12.23828  
Observations (or Sum Wgts) 64

### Parameter Estimates

Term	Estimate	Std Error	t Ratio	Prob> t
Intercept	0.8352064	3.035964	0.28	0.7842
Estimated Hrs	0.6321871	0.120529	5.25	<.0001*

$$Y = 0.835 + 0.632 X$$

## Residual by Predicted Plot

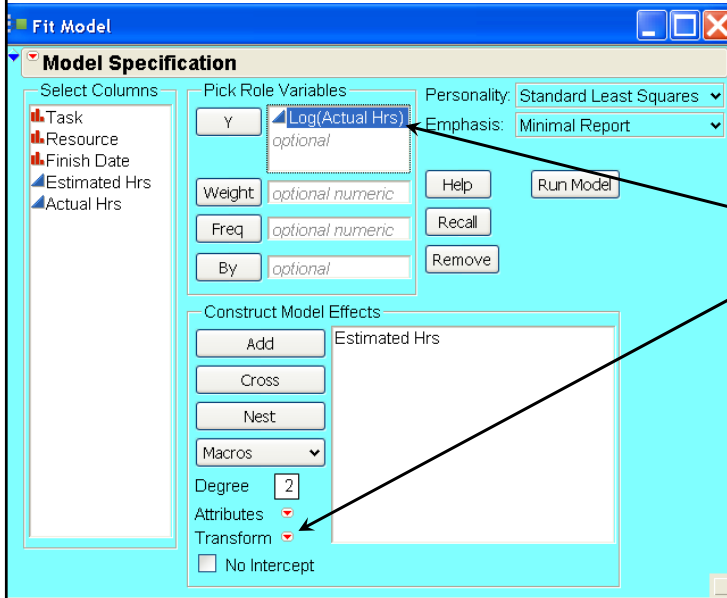


Variation increases as average Actual Hrs increases

## Transforming Y (cont'd)

255

$\sigma_Y$  proportional to mean Y  $\longleftrightarrow$   $\sigma_{\text{Log}(Y)}$  constant



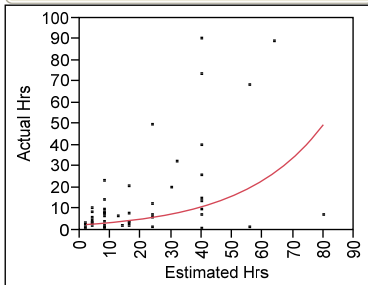
- Click on *Actual Hrs*
- Click on *Transform* red triangle
- Select *Log*
- Run the model

## Effects of log transformation

256

### Response Log(Actual Hrs)

#### Regression Plot



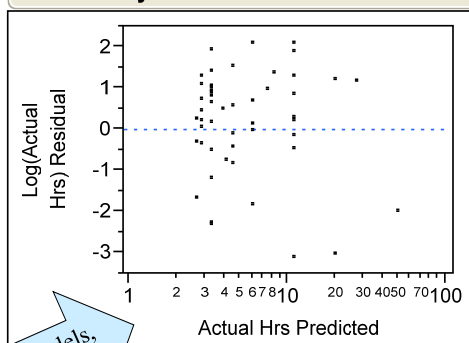
#### Summary of Fit

RSquare 0.233276  
 RSquare Adj 0.22091  
 Root Mean Square Error 1.217933  
 Mean of Response 1.576584  
 Observations (or Sum Wgts) 64

#### Parameter Estimates

Term	Estimate	Std Error	t Ratio	Prob> t
Intercept	0.8982207	0.218111	4.12	0.0001*
Estimated Hrs	0.0376085	0.008659	4.34	<.0001*

### Residual by Predicted Plot



For Log(Y) models,  
use Log scale here

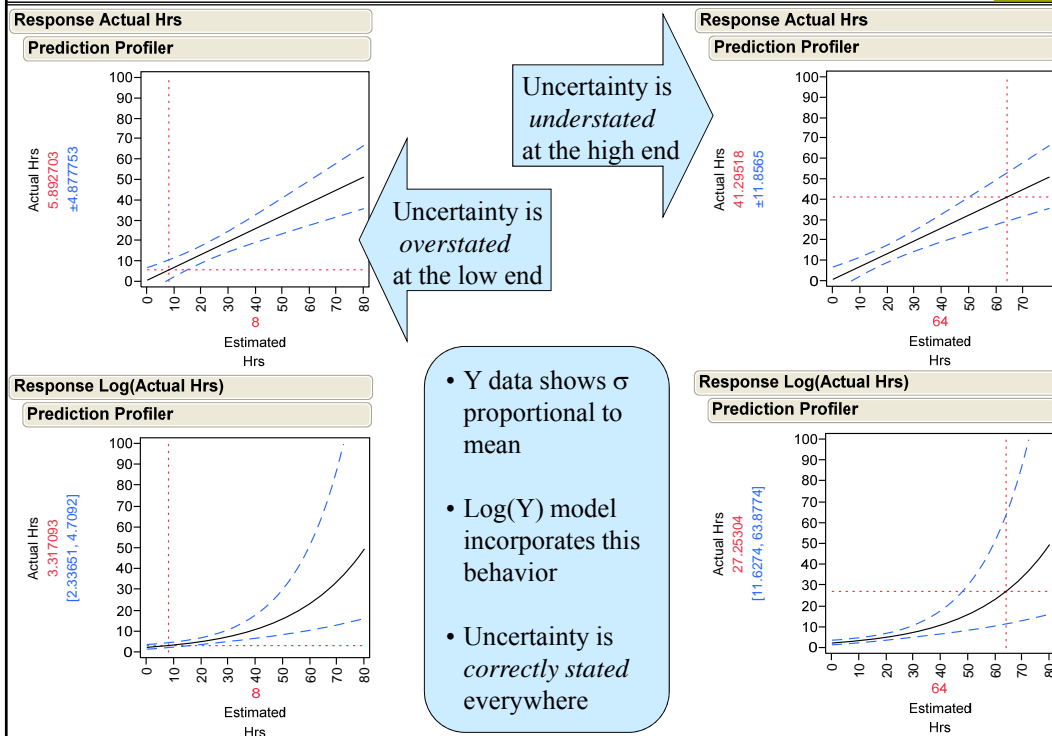
Nonlinear model for Y

$$\text{Log}(Y) = 0.898 + 0.038X$$

$$\rightarrow Y = \exp(0.898 + 0.038X) = e^{0.898} (e^{0.038})^X = 2.45(1.04)^X$$

## Effect of not using Log(Y) when you should

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## Summary

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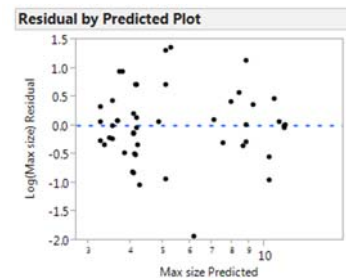
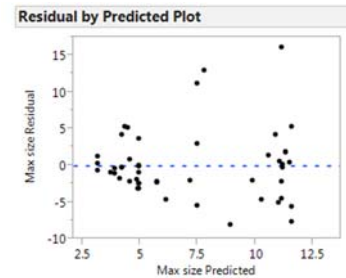
- In this example, the model for Y was questionable because it assumed constant  $\sigma$ .
- Using Log(Y) as the response is better because it models an important aspect of the data:  $\sigma$  proportional to mean.
- Answers to frequently asked questions:
  - ✓ Satisfying model assumptions always takes precedence over Adjusted  $R^2$ .
  - ✓ P values always take precedence over Adjusted  $R^2$ .
  - ✓ Adjusted  $R^2$  should be used only when there are no other ways to distinguish one model from another.

## Exercise 12.1

259

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ number and size of defects.jmp*

- Fit a model for *Max size* including the terms *Welder*, *# Defects*, their interactive effect, and the quadratic effect for *# Defects* (*response surface model* for one continuous factor and one categorical factor). You should see a distinct sideways V.
- Select *Model Dialog* on the *Response* red triangle menu, apply a Log transformation to *Max size*, re-run the model. The sideways V isn't completely gone, but close enough.
- Select *Model Dialog* on the *Response* red triangle menu, remove terms with  $P > 0.15$ , run the model again (and again, if necessary).
- Which terms are left in the model equation?

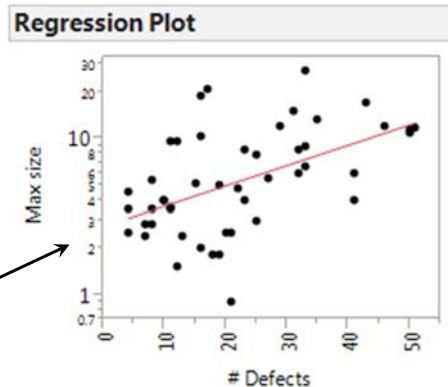


## Exercise 12.1 (cont'd)

260

- Now we have a log-linear simple regression.

When you use a Log or square root transformation on Y, it is helpful to use log scale for the Y axes of the plots

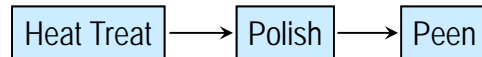


- Save your script, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 12.2

261

An aerospace manufacturer uses integral castings as structural components of jet engines. Integral castings give design engineers more flexibility and simplify the assembly process. Defect-free castings are known to have long cycle fatigue life, but defects often arise in the casting process and must be weld repaired. The engine manufacturer's metallurgical team has proposed a finishing process of the following type to ensure adequate cycle fatigue life of weld-repaired castings:



The team wants to optimize the first two steps in this process to achieve maximum cycle fatigue life. Also, though other applications of similar processes have included peening, they would like to see if it can be omitted to reduce processing time and cost.

Due to project time constraints and limited availability of test fixtures, the team can perform at most 12 cycle fatigue tests for their experiment.

## Exercise 12.2 (cont'd)

262

- Y variable: *Cycles* (to failure)

- X variables:

➤ Heat treat:	Anneal or Solution/age
➤ Polish:	Chemical or Mechanical
➤ Peen:	Yes or No

- Open *LSSV2 data sets \ weldment fatigue.jmp*
- Run the *Model* script provided in the left panel, run the model.
- Notice the extreme sideways V on the *Residual by Predicted Plot*.
- Rerun the model using a Log transformation on *Cycles*. Remove insignificant terms from the model ( $P > 0.15$ ), then run the model again.
- Use the *Prediction Profiler* to maximize the cycle fatigue life.

## Exercise 12.3

263

A Black Belt wants to minimize the *leak rate* in plastic containers ultrasonically welded together. The X variables and ranges are:

- Force: 70 to 150
- Energy: 275 to 325
- Amplitude: 70 to 90

- Open *LSSV2 data sets \ ultrasonic welding 1.jmp*
- Run the *Model* script provided in the left panel, run the model.
- Use the *Prediction Profiler* to minimize the leak rate.
- Notice anything odd about your minimized leak rate?

## Exercise 12.3 (cont'd)

264

- Confirm that the *Residual by Predicted Plot* shows a sideways V.
- Re-run the script provided in the data table, apply a Log transformation to *leak rate*, run the model again.
- Remove insignificant terms from the model ( $P > 0.15$ ), then run the model again.
- Use the *Prediction Profiler* to minimize the leak rate.

## Exercise 12.4

265

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ electron microscope.jmp*

- Run the *Fit Model* script using *D-Width* (a  $3\sigma$  measure of non-repeatability) as the response. You should see a distinct sideways V.
- Select *Model Dialog* on the *Response* red triangle menu, apply a Log transformation to *D-Width*, re-run the model. The sideways V isn't completely gone, but close enough.
- Select *Model Dialog* on the *Response* red triangle menu, remove terms with  $P > 0.15$ . (Have *Effects Tests* and model dialog open at the same time to avoid errors.) You will have to repeat this cycle, then run the model a third time.

- We want to minimize *D-Width*. Set up the response goal as shown here.

The *Response Goal* dialog box is shown with the following settings:

- Goal: Minimize
- D-Width Values: High: 2, Middle: 1, Low: 0
- Desirability: High: 0.066, Middle: 0.5, Low: 0.9819
- Importance: 1

Buttons: OK, Cancel, Help

## Exercise 12.4 (cont'd)

266

- It is quite likely that the optimal factor settings will be different for each tool. On the *Prediction Profiler* red triangle, select *Reset Factor Grid*. We want to lock the factor setting for *Tool*, so check the *Lock Factor Setting* box as shown here.

The *Factor Settings* dialog box is shown with the following settings:

Factor	Total Dose	Integrations	W Area	W Time	Polish Time	Bias	Tool
Current Value:	9	10	60	12.5	0		
Minimum Setting:	2	4	30	5	-10		
Maximum Setting:	16	16	90	20	10		
Number of Plotted Points:	41	41	41	41	41		

Below the table, the *Lock Factor Setting* checkbox for *Tool* is checked. An arrow points to this checkbox.

Buttons: OK, Cancel

- Maximize the desirability for each tool. Verify the table below.

Tool	Total Dose	W Area	W Time	Polish Time	Bias	D-Width
A	11.8	4	30	5	-10	0.74
B	9.6	4	90	5	-10	0.72
C	9.6	4	90	5	10	1.13

- Save your script, close and save the data table.

## 13 DOE vs "File Cabinet" Data

267

*All experiments are experiences, but not all experiences are experiments.*—R A Fisher

	File cabinet data	DOE
Data sets	Larger, “messy”	Smaller, “clean”
Data collection	Routine operation	Controlled conditions
Information provided	Correlations	Cause and effect
Interactive effects?	Maybe	Definitely
Time period covered	Longer	Shorter

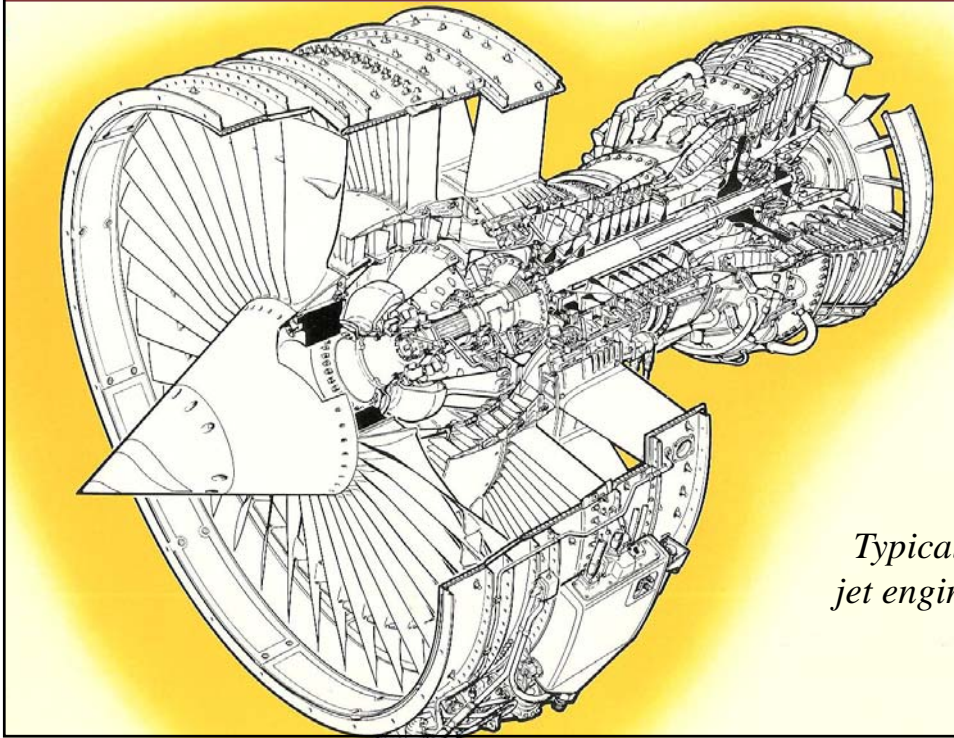
### Notes

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Ronald Fisher was an English geneticist and mathematician trying to increase crop yields in the 1920s. There were limited numbers of plots available for field trials, gradients in the soil, variable proximity to water sources, differing amounts of sunlight, and long lead times. To solve these problems, Fisher developed a body of statistical methods known as Design of Experiments (DOE).

During World War II, Fisher’s techniques were extended and applied to military optimization problems. After the war, they were further extended and applied to industrial problems like improving the quality and reliability of manufactured products. For his lifelong contributions to science and statistics, Dr Ronald Fisher eventually became Sir Ronald Fisher.

The quote above was Fisher’s way of emphasizing the difference between observational studies (analysis of “file cabinet” data) and designed experiments. This distinction is as important today in Six Sigma as it was a century ago in agriculture. After all, both are concerning with increasing yields!

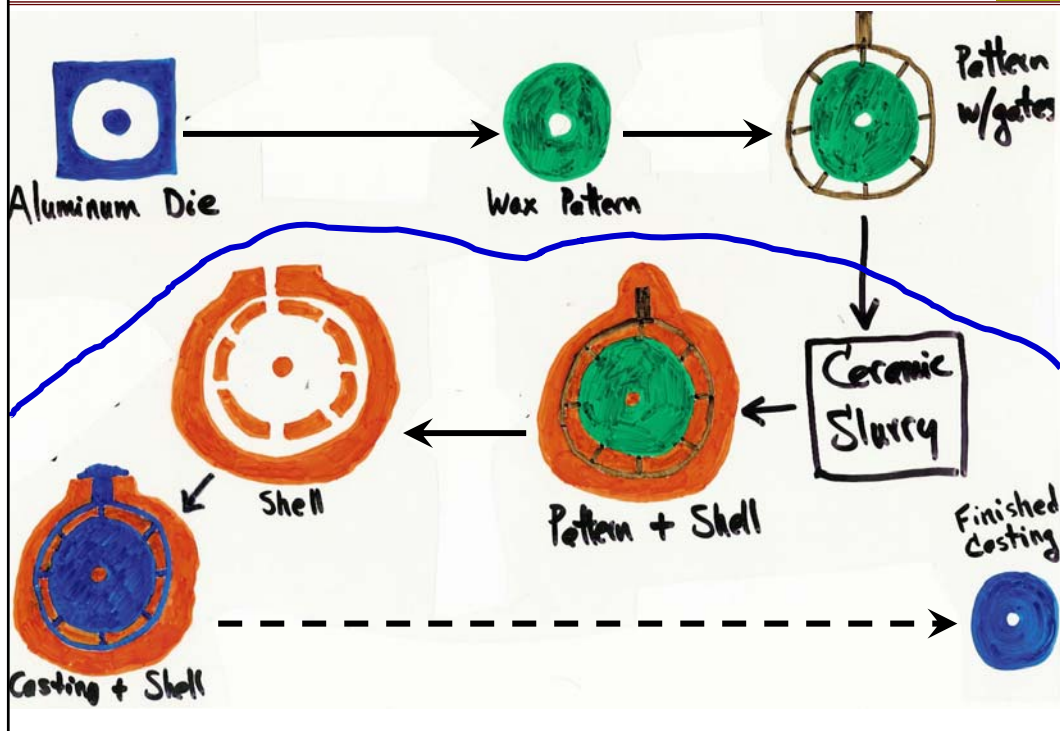


*Typical  
jet engine*



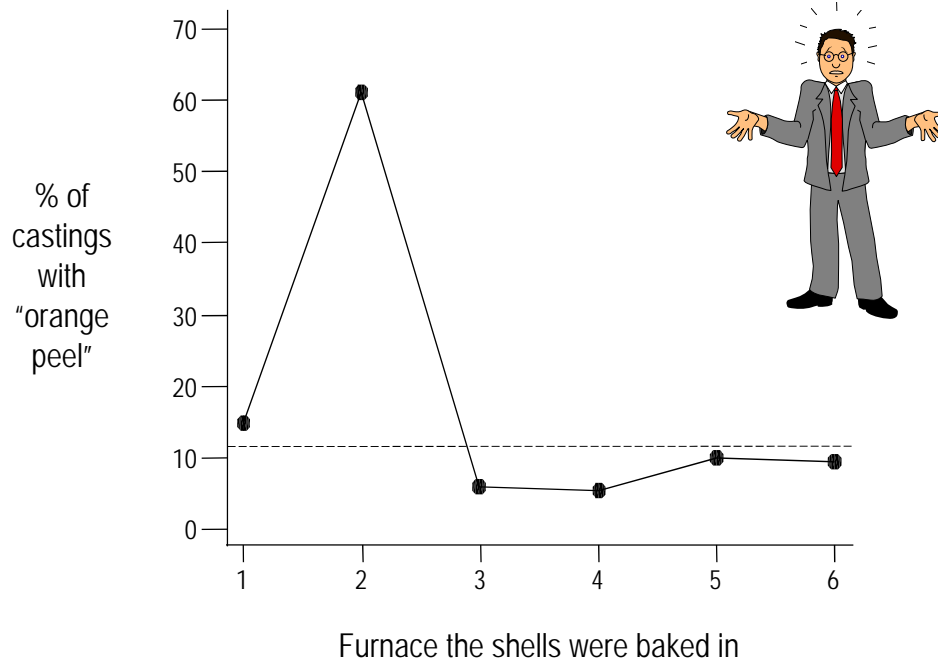
- Back in the day: many small pieces welded together
- Now: one piece casting
- 3 to 6 feet in diameter
- Stainless steel, nickel alloys, titanium alloys

- Value stream: investment casting of nickel alloy structural components
- Process boundaries: shell making through backend processing
- Experiencing “orange peel” surface condition violating customer smoothness requirements
- 12% scrap rate (big parts → big \$\$)
- $Y = f(X)$ : analyze existing production data



## A big signal

273



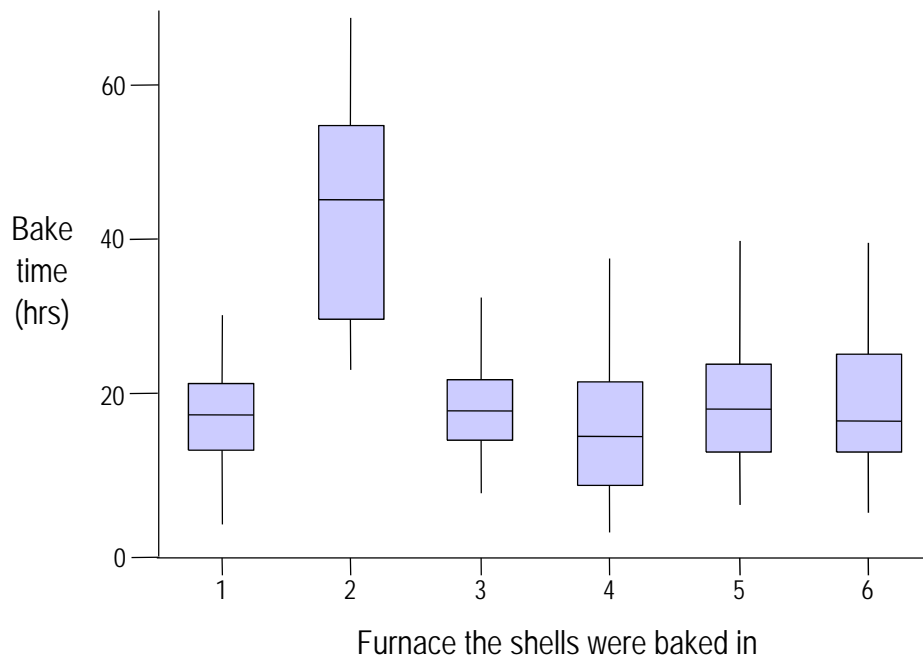
## Notes

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The strongest correlation in the database involved one of the pre-heat furnaces used to bake the ceramic shells before transfer to the casting furnace. Furnace 2 was new and had come on line just about the same time orange peel started occurring. Almost everyone agreed the new furnace was the problem.

The casting area manager refused to take Furnace #2 off line. He needed all six pre-heats to keep the casting furnace running nonstop so he could meet his production quotas.

Process Engineer Dave (shown above) was skeptical that Furnace 2 was causing the problem. For one thing, the other pre-heats were also producing scrap castings. Also, he had spent the better part of the past three months evaluating and qualifying the new furnace.





Dave pointed out that the shell bake times were much longer for Furnace 2 than for the other furnaces. There was a minimum required bake time, but no upper limit. Dave's theory was that orange peel was caused by long bake times.

Why did shells stay longer in Furnace 2?

It turned out there wasn't room to put the new furnace next to the original five, so it had to be located further away from the casting furnace. The fork-lift operators wouldn't drive over there unless they had no shells ready from the closer furnaces, so shells tended to sit in Furnace 2 for a long time.

- The file cabinet data suggested some plausible hypotheses
- It could not establish the cause of the defect
- The *quantity* of data was not the problem
- The data lacked the *structure* required to determine cause and effect

?		Short bake
	?	Long bake
Furnace #2	Others	

There was lots of data in the upper right-hand and lower left-hand cells in the table above, but virtually nothing in the other two cells. Making sure that data tables like the one above are completely filled out is one of the basic principles of experimental design.

Subsequently, engineers ran enough parts in the upper left-hand corner of the table to determine that long bakes were indeed causing the problem. An upper limit on the bake time was developed and put in place. Shells that exceeded this limit were scrapped. This cost the company much less than scrapping the resulting castings.

The new procedure made the fork-lift operators' job harder, but it made the orange peel problem go away.

## 14 The Role of DOE in LSS Projects

279

$Y = f(X)$   
analysis

- Data collection in the Measure phase may have produced little or no useful information
- DOE is an effective way to collect useful current state data in a relatively short period of time

Developing  
the future  
state

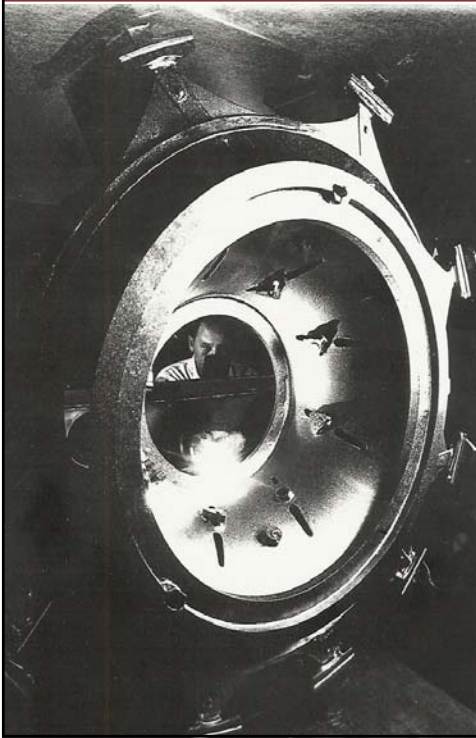
- May have multiple potential improvement ideas on the table
- DOE is an effective way to evaluate these ideas prior to defining the future state

Notes

280

## Example

281



- Titanium castings → strong & light
- Ti develops surface oxidation during the cooling phase
- Large Ti castings were failing the customer O<sub>2</sub> requirement
- Analysis of file cabinet data yielded no significant correlations
- Engineers developed a list of factors for a DOE

## Example (cont'd)

282

Factor	Levels	Current state X variable	Possible future state solution
Slurry for shell	Batch 1 vs Batch 2	✓	
Shell thickness	14 dips vs 18 dips		✓
Shell bake time	6 hrs vs 48 hrs	✓	
Shell bake temp	1950° vs 2050°		✓
Alloy grade	Low \$ vs High \$		✓
Alloy status	New vs Revert	✓	
Heat shield steel	Mild vs SS		✓
Cooling fan speed	2400 vs 3200		✓

## 15 One Factor at a Time?

283

- In this approach, each factor is varied with all others held constant. This way, it is felt, we can see the “pure effect” of each factor.
- This is one way to apply the scientific method, but it is not the only way.
- For any proposed one at a time experiment, there is usually a multifactor experiment providing:
  - ✓ More information
  - ✓ Better results
  - ✓ Same (or possibly smaller) total sample size
- One at a time trials *are* useful for determining feasible ranges for factor in a DOE

## Example: potato chip bags

284

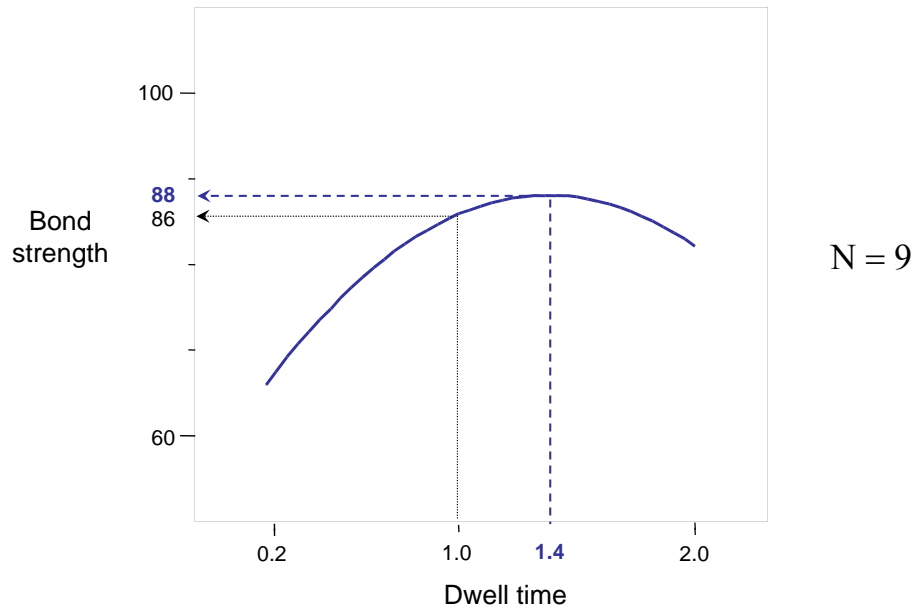
- The current average bond strength of our potato chip bags is 86 psi
- Based on customer complaints, we need to increase the bond strength
- The most important control factors in the bag sealing operation are *temperature* and *dwell time* (see below)
- Secondary objective: decrease the *dwell time* if possible

Factor	Current level	Feasible range
Temperature	150°	120 to 180
Dwell time	1.0 secs	0.2 to 2.0

## One-at-a-time experiment #1

285

Vary *dwell time* over its feasible range while holding *temperature* at 150



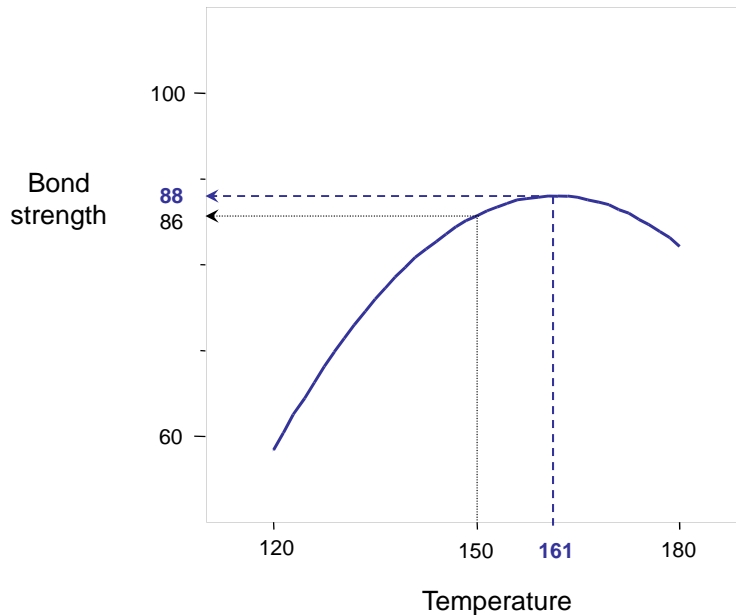
## Notes

286

Our process engineer Chip Kettle first studies the effect of dwell time while holding temperature constant. He seals and tests 9 bags using dwell times ranging from 0.2 to 2.0. Chip finds he can increase the bond strength by 2 psi by increasing the dwell time to 1.4.

Our production manager Justin Thyme is not pleased with the prospect of a 40% increase in dwell time.

Vary *temperature* over its feasible range while holding *dwell time* at 1.0



N = 9

### Notes

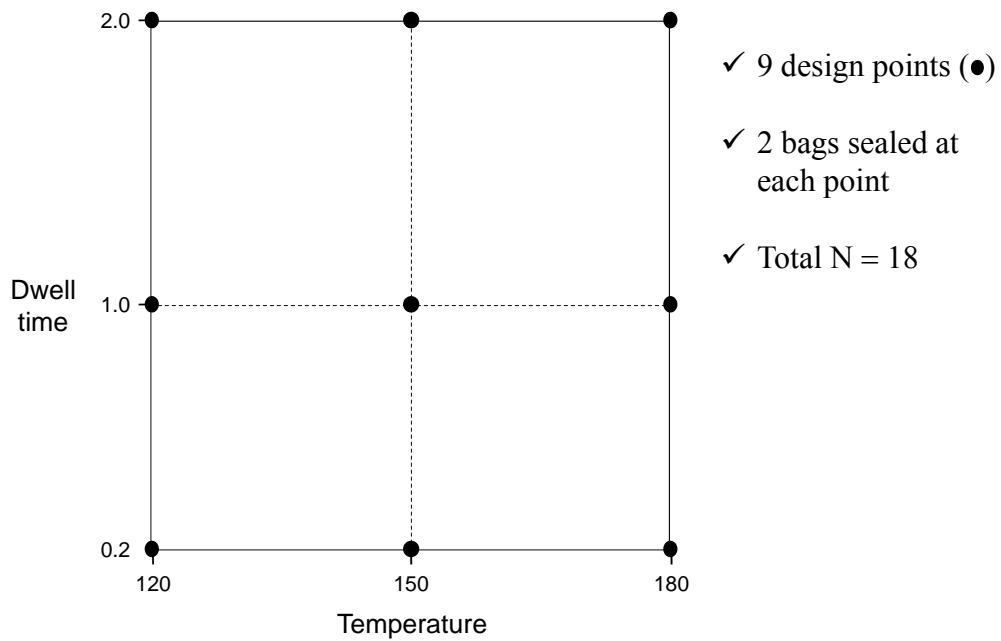
288

Chip now studies the effect of temperature while holding dwell time constant. He seals and tests 9 bags using temperatures ranging from 120 to 180. Chip finds he can increase the bond strength by 2 psi by increasing the temperature to 161.

Chip predicts that changing the dwell time to 1.4 and the temperature to 161 will increase the average bond strength by 4 psi ( $2 + 2$ ). However, it is highly likely that Justin will oppose the increase in dwell time, in which case the increase in average bond strength will be only 2 psi.

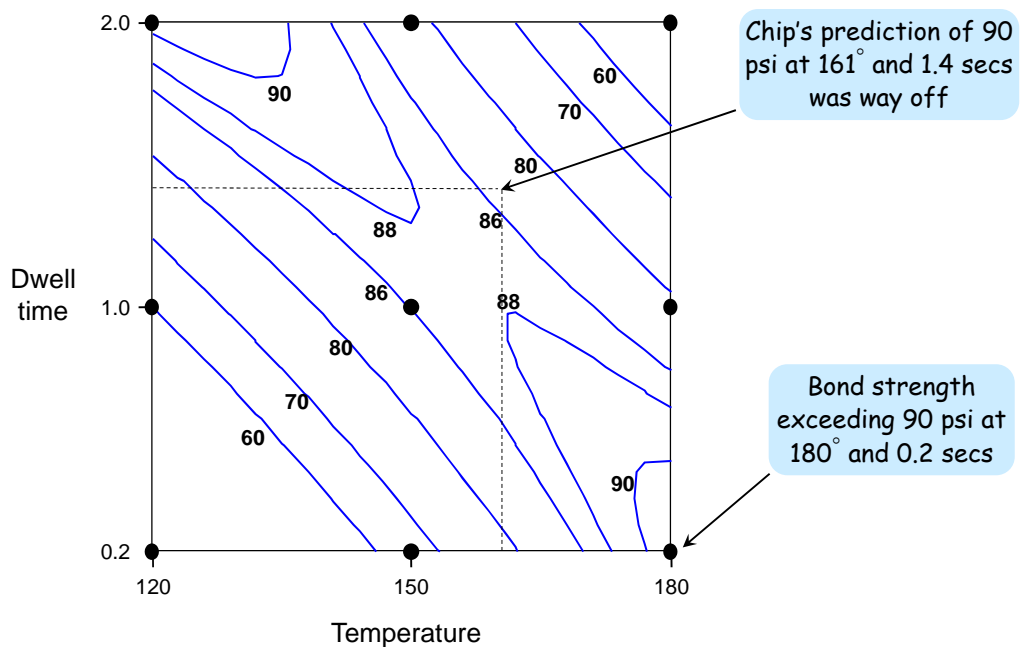
## The multi-factor approach

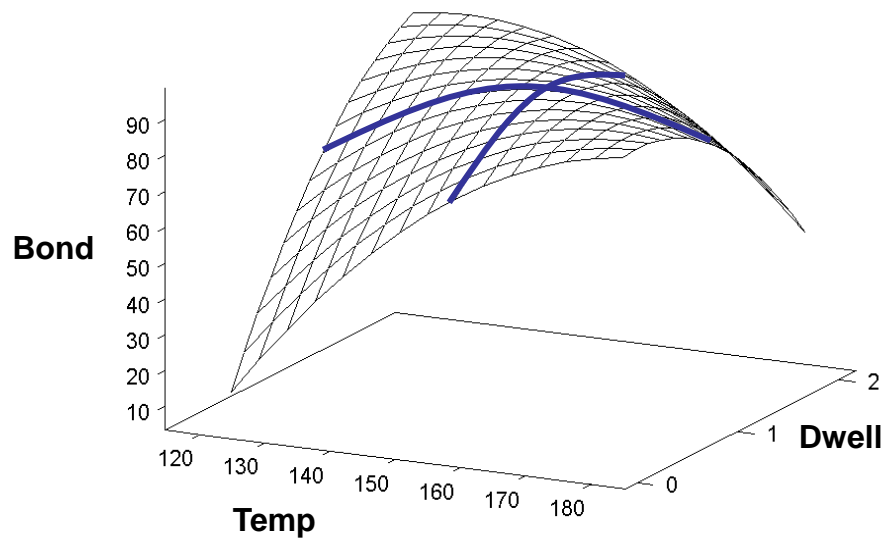
289



## Contour plot of predicted average bond strength

290



*The 3D perspective*

## Notes

When we experiment with all factors but one held constant, we optimize sequentially over one-dimensional profiles. The sequence of solutions generated by this process is highly dependent on the starting point. It has very little chance of finding a global optimum, and often fails to move a significant distance from the starting point.

### Experimental unit

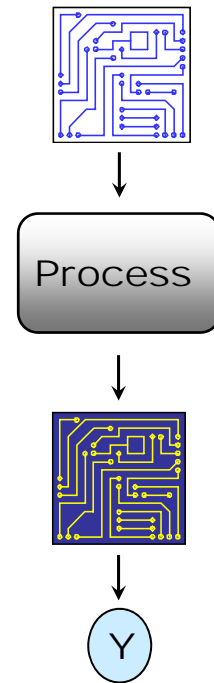
The outcome of a single application of the process being studied

### Sample size

The total number of experimental units ("number of runs")

### Response variable

A Y variable measured or inspected on each experimental unit



### Notes

The experimental unit is often a part, lot, batch or single transaction of some kind. It may also be a test specimen or sample of material. It is important to identify the experimental unit—it provides the basis for counting sample size, and sample size is critical in determining the statistical significance of the results.

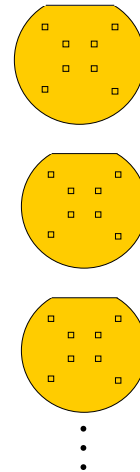
The experimental unit is determined by the process on which we are experimenting, not the measurement plan used to evaluate the results. For example, suppose we test 100 devices for product life. Suppose we measure a degradation parameter on each device every 10 hours until the end of the test at 100 hours. The sample size for the study is the number of units (100), not the number of measurements (1000).

## Example

295

- 11 silicon wafers were subjected to vapor deposition at various temperatures, pressures, and Argon flow rates
- The thickness of the resulting layer was measured at 8 locations on each wafer
- What is the sample size?

Temp	Press	Flow	Thickness
180	0.3	30	
180	0.3	30	
180	0.3	30	
160	0.4	10	
160	0.4	50	
160	0.2	50	
160	0.2	10	
200	0.4	10	
200	0.2	10	
200	0.2	50	
200	0.4	50	

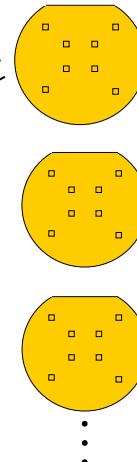


## Example (cont'd)

296

- The sample size is the number of experimental units, not the total number of measurements taken
- The response variables of interest may be statistical summaries of multiple measurements on each unit

Temp	Press	Flow	Avg.	Std. dev.
180	0.3	30		
180	0.3	30		
180	0.3	30		
160	0.4	10		
160	0.4	50		
160	0.2	50		
160	0.2	10		
200	0.4	10		
200	0.2	10		
200	0.2	50		
200	0.4	50		



**Factor**

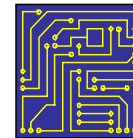
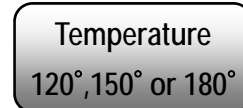
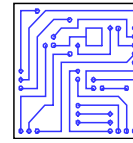
An X variable controlled in an experiment, varied on purpose to determine its effect on the responses

**Level**

A particular value or setting of a factor to be used in the experiment

**Requirements**

All levels of each factor must be logically and physically compatible with all levels of the other factors



Variables used as factors in a designed experiment may or may not be controlled in the routine process. What matters is that they can be controlled for the purpose of experimentation.

*Examples of continuous factors*

Time	Volume
Temperature	Weight
Pressure	Length
Energy	Width
Voltage	Density
Resistance	Rate
Concentration	RPM
Flow	Intensity . . .

- A factor is *continuous* if it can be varied within some range on a scale of measurement
- It is generally preferable to use 3 equally-spaced levels (low, medium, and high) for continuous factors

*Examples of categorical factors*

Method	Old or New
Tool set	1, 2 or 3
Material	A, B, C or D
Supplier	X, Y or Z
Operator	Bob, Carol, Ted or Alice
Color	Cyan, Magenta or Yellow
Size	Small, Medium or Large

- A factor is *categorical* if it represents a set of discrete choices
- It is easier to design and analyze experiments with categorical factors because the levels are given, the models are simpler, and we don't need to interpolate.
- Treating a factor as quantitative implies that any value in the range can be used in the process
- If the levels used in the experiment are the only values that can be used in the process, the factor should be treated as categorical
- For example, one of the controls parameters for certain electron microscopes has to be a power of 2.
- If you treat this as a continuous factor, the optimal value from the DOE will most likely not be a power of 2

<i>Categorical factors</i>	<i>Continuous factors</i>
Any number of levels	Usually 3 levels
Discrete set of design points	Region in factor space
Test for significant differences	Response surface modeling
Select best design point	Interpolate between design points

## Control factors

Can be controlled in the routine process



Type of material  
Temperature  
Pressure  
Method  
Time  
:  
:

When possible, it is good practice to include selected noise factors in experiments. Why?

## Noise factors

Cannot be controlled in the routine process



Ambient conditions  
Raw materials  
Operators  
Suppliers  
Batches  
Setups  
Shifts  
Lots  
:  
:

**Design point**

A particular combination of levels of the factors.

**Design matrix**

The set and sequence of design points to be used in the experiment.

**Full factorial**

The set of all possible design points for a given set of factors and levels.

Temp	Press	Experimental units
120	50	
120	150	
180	50	
180	150	Experimental units

- ✓ Full factorial
- ✓ 4 design points
- ✓ No repeats
- ✓ Sample size = 4

**Repeat run**

An experimental unit created independently of other units at the same design point

**False repeat**

- Repeated measurement of one unit
- Units in the same batch, when optimizing a batch process for which there is very little variation within batches

**Replicate**

A set of repeat runs, one for each unit in a given set

Temp	Press	Experimental units
120	50	
120	150	
180	50	
180	150	
120	50	
120	150	
180	50	
180	150	

- ✓ Full factorial
- ✓ 4 design points
- ✓ 1 replicate
- ✓ Sample size = 8

## Exercise 16.1

307

A bank wants to increase the yield of its credit card offers. It plans to collect VOC data by means of a DOE involving the factors in the table below. The bank plans to send out 1000 offers for each combination of the factor levels. Based on the data, they will determine the combination with the greatest % yield.

- How many design points are in the full factorial?
- What is the experimental unit?
- What is the sample size?
- What is the Y variable?
- For each factor, decide whether you would treat it as quantitative or categorical (give your answers and reasons in the table below).

## Exercise 16.1 (cont'd)

308

Factor	Levels	Continuous or categorical?
Introductory APR	0, 2.5, or 5%	
Introductory time period	3, 6, or 9 months	
Gift	None, iPhone, iPad, or espresso machine	

## 17 Creating a Full Factorial Design

309

### DOE → Full Factorial Design

1. Define responses, factors, numerical ranges for quantitative factors, and levels for categorical factors.

**Full Factorial Design**

**Responses**

Add Response Remove Number of Responses...

Response Name	Goal	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	Importance
% Yes	Maximize			

optional item

**Factors**

Continuous Categorical Remove

Name	Role	Values
Intro APR	Categorical	0 2.5 5
Intro Time	Categorical	3 6 9
Gift	Categorical	I-phone I-pad Microwave Espresso

Specify Factors  
Add a Continuous or Categorical factor by clicking its button.  
Double click on a factor name or level to edit it.

Continue

## Creating a full factorial (cont'd)

310

### DOE → Full Factorial Design

2. Add extra “center” points, request one or more replicates, and/or pre-sort the matrix if desired. Use the *Back* button to modify Step 1.

**Full Factorial Design**

**Responses**

**Factors**

3x3x4 Factorial

Output Options

Run Order: Randomize

Number of Runs: 36

Number of Center Points: 0

Number of Replicates: 0

Make Table

Back

5/0 Cols						
36/0		Pattern	Intro APR	Intro Time	Gift	% Yes
ix	1	324	5	6	Espresso	•
	2	114	0	3	Espresso	•
	3	212	2.5	3	Toaster	•
	4	132	0	9	Toaster	•
	5	211	2.5	3	None	•
	6	314	5	3	Espresso	•
	7	223	2.5	6	Microwave	•
	8	134	0	9	Espresso	•
	9	111	0	3	None	•
	10	131	0	9	None	•
	11	112	0	3	Toaster	•
	12	323	5	6	Microwave	•
	13	334	5	9	Espresso	•
	14	313	5	3	Microwave	•
	15	224	2.5	6	Espresso	•
	16	222	2.5	6	Toaster	•
	17	232	2.5	9	Toaster	•
	18	332	5	9	Toaster	•
	19	122	0	6	Toaster	•
	20	322	5	6	Toaster	•
	21	213	2.5	3	Microwave	•
	22	234	2.5	9	Espresso	•
	23	123	0	6	Microwave	•
	24	331	5	9	None	•
	25	233	2.5	9	Microwave	•
	26	333	5	9	Microwave	•
	27	212	5	3	Toaster	•
	28	311	5	3	None	•
	29	121	0	6	None	•
	30	321	5	6	None	•
	31	214	2.5	3	Espresso	•
	32	231	2.5	9	None	•
	33	133	0	9	Microwave	•
	34	113	0	3	Microwave	•
	35	124	0	6	Espresso	•
	36	221	2.5	6	None	•

- Each “center” point = one additional row in the matrix
- Each “replicate” = one additional set of 36 rows

## Simulating response data

311

3. Create two new columns as shown here.
4. Define *Sent* with a formula consisting of the constant value 1000.
5. The *Returned* column is where we would enter the number of offers accepted and returned for each of the 36 offer types.
6. For this exercise, define *Returned* with the formula defined on the next slide.

	Pattern	Intro APR	Intro Time	Gift	% Yes	Sent	Returned
1	324	5	6	Espresso	•	1000	•
2	114	0	3	Espresso	•	1000	•
3	212	2.5	3	Toaster	•	1000	•
4	132	0	9	Toaster	•	1000	•
5	211	2.5	3	None	•	1000	•
6	314	5	3	Espresso	•	1000	•
7	223	2.5	6	Microwave	•	1000	•
8	134	0	9	Espresso	•	1000	•
9	111	0	3	None	•	1000	•
10	131	0	9	None	•	1000	•
11	112	0	3	Toaster	•	1000	•
12	323	5	6	Microwave	•	1000	•
13	334	5	9	Espresso	•	1000	•
14	313	5	3	Microwave	•	1000	•
15	224	2.5	6	Espresso	•	1000	•
16	222	2.5	6	Toaster	•	1000	•
17	232	2.5	9	Toaster	•	1000	•
18	332	5	9	Toaster	•	1000	•
19	122	0	6	Toaster	•	1000	•
20	322	5	6	Toaster	•	1000	•
21	213	2.5	3	Microwave	•	1000	•
22	234	2.5	9	Espresso	•	1000	•
23	123	0	6	Microwave	•	1000	•
24	331	5	9	None	•	1000	•
25	233	2.5	9	Microwave	•	1000	•
26	333	5	9	Microwave	•	1000	•
27	312	5	3	Toaster	•	1000	•
28	311	5	3	None	•	1000	•
29	121	0	6	None	•	1000	•
30	321	5	6	None	•	1000	•
31	214	2.5	3	Espresso	•	1000	•
32	231	2.5	9	None	•	1000	•
33	133	0	9	Microwave	•	1000	•
34	113	0	3	Microwave	•	1000	•
35	124	0	6	Espresso	•	1000	•
36	221	2.5	6	None	•	1000	•

## Simulating response data (cont'd)

312

Functions (grouped)  
↓  
Random  
↓  
Random Integer[n1]  
↓  
Random Integer[50]

7. Define *% Yes* with the formula

$$\left[ \frac{\text{Returned}}{\text{Sent}} \right] * 100$$

8. Run the *Model* script provided in the left panel.

	Intro APR	Intro Time	Gift	% Yes	Sent	Returned
1	0	3	Microwave	3.9	1000	39
2	0	9	None	3.7	1000	37
3	0	9	Toaster	4.9	1000	49
4	0	3	Espresso	0.1	1000	1
5	5	9	Microwave	4.4	1000	44
6	0	6	Microwave	2.6	1000	26
7	2.5	9	None	0.6	1000	6
8	5	6	Espresso	4.2	1000	42
9	2.5	9	Microwave	1.6	1000	16
10	0	3	None	0.9	1000	9
11	0	6	Espresso	3	1000	30
12	2.5	6	Microwave	1.4	1000	14
13	5	6	Toaster	3.8	1000	38
14	0	9	Espresso	2.4	1000	24
15	0	9	Microwave	0.3	1000	3
16	2.5	6	None	4.1	1000	41
17	2.5	6	Toaster	2.5	1000	25
18	5	3	Espresso	1.1	1000	11
19	0	3	Toaster	3.1	1000	31
20	5	3	Microwave	4.6	1000	46
21	5	3	None	3.5	1000	35
22	5	3	Toaster	4.8	1000	48
23	2.5	3	Toaster	0.6	1000	6
24	2.5	3	Microwave	3.6	1000	36
25	0	6	Toaster	3.5	1000	35
26	2.5	9	Toaster	0.4	1000	4
27	2.5	6	Espresso	1.5	1000	15
28	5	9	Toaster	1.6	1000	16
29	2.5	9	Espresso	0.1	1000	1
30	5	9	Espresso	3.8	1000	38

**Model Specification**

**Select Columns**

- Intro APR
- Intro Time
- Gift
- % Yes
- Sent
- Returned

**Pick Role Variables**

Y: % Yes (optional)

Weight: (optional numeric)

Freq: (optional numeric)

By: (optional)

Personality: Standard Least Squares

Emphasis: Minimal Report

Buttons: Help, Recall, Remove, Run

☐ Keep dialog open

**Construct Model Effects**

Add: Intro APR, Intro Time, Gift, Intro APR\*Intro Time, Intro APR\*Gift, Intro Time\*Gift

Cross: (empty)

Nest: (empty)

Macros: (empty)

Degree: 2

Attributes: ☒

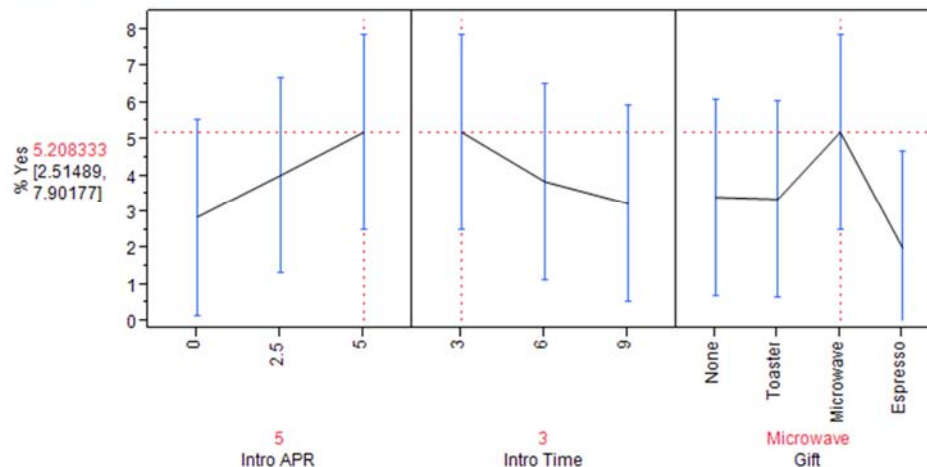
Transform: ☒

☐ No Intercept

- Point and click to find the combination with the highest % Yes
- Your profiler won't look like this one
- Your best combination may not make sense

## Response % Yes

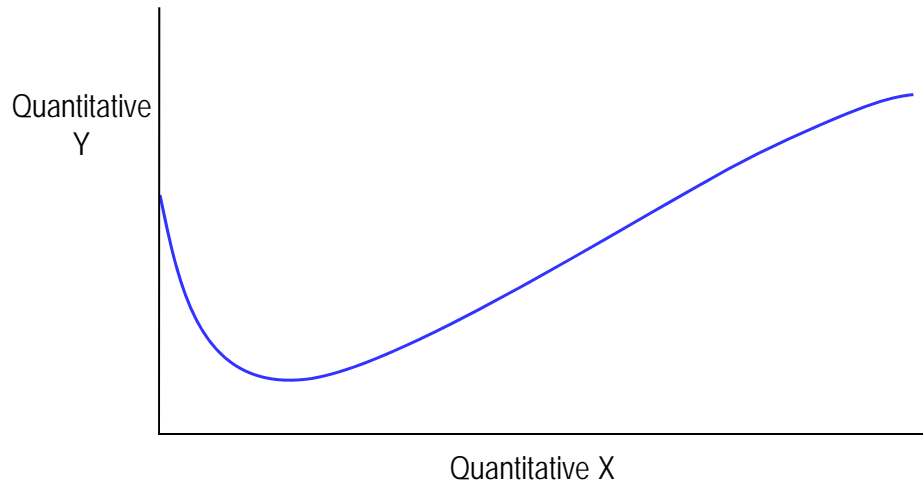
## Prediction Profiler



## 18 Statistical Assumptions

315

Average Y as a function of X has no jumps or corners  
(assumption of *smoothness*)



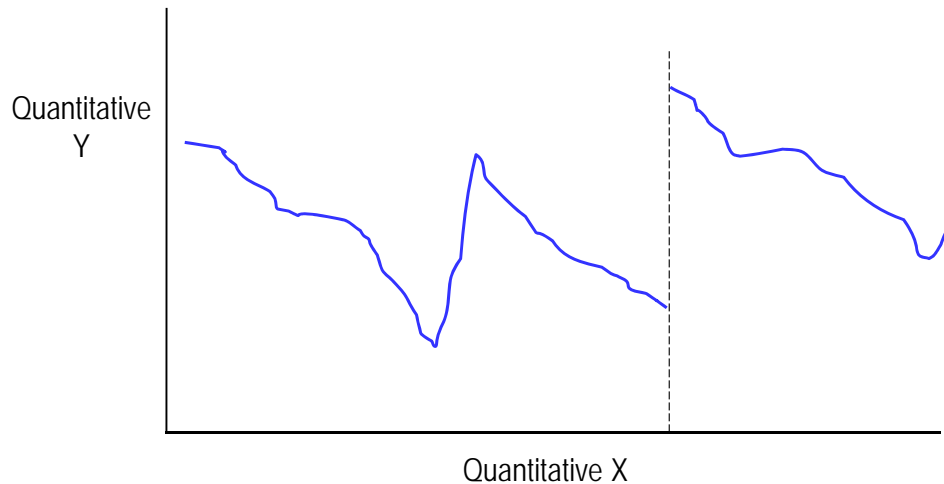
### Notes

316

A hypothetical smooth response function.

We never know the true response function, but often we have information about its general properties. For quantitative X and Y, *smoothness* of the  $Y = f(X)$  relationship is one such property. It means the function can be well approximated over sufficiently short intervals by a polynomial, usually linear or quadratic. This is necessary in optimization experiments where we want to *interpolate* between the experimental design points.

*Average  $Y$  as a function of  $X$  has jumps and/or corners*



A hypothetical non-smooth response function.

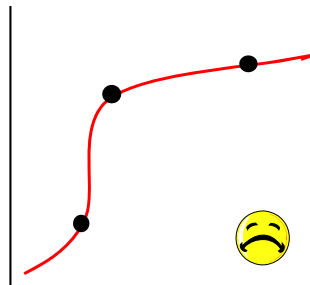
A function with jumps or sharp corners will not be well approximated by low-order polynomials in neighborhoods of the associated  $X$  values. This is a problem in optimization experiments because we want to interpolate.

It is not a problem in screening experiments, because there we are merely trying to identify factors with large first-order effects. Accurate approximation throughout the  $X$  range is not required.

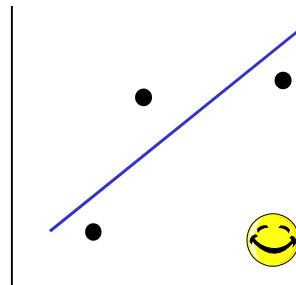
Jumps and sharp corners often occur outside the feasible operating range of the process. In fact, such discontinuities often *define* the feasible operating range. A smooth response function is usually a safe assumption as long as we are not operating too close to a “cliff.”

*“One should not increase, beyond what is necessary, the number of entities required to explain something.”*

—William of Occam, medieval philosopher



Exact “French curve”



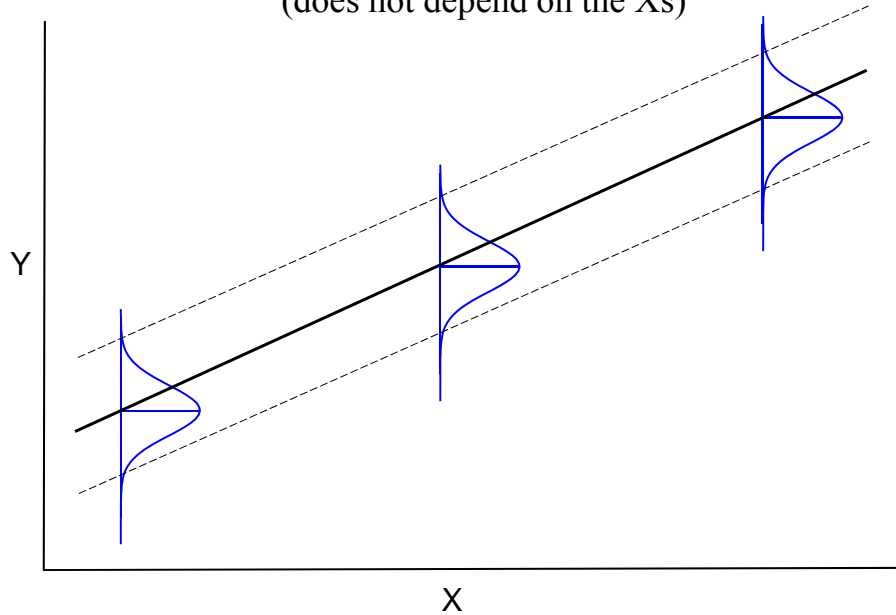
Linear plus noise

Occam's razor represents a preference for simple explanations over complex ones. This reflects a belief that simple hypotheses are more likely to be true than complex ones. This belief is not always justified, but it is efficient in that it leads to models with just enough complexity to explain a given set of observations.

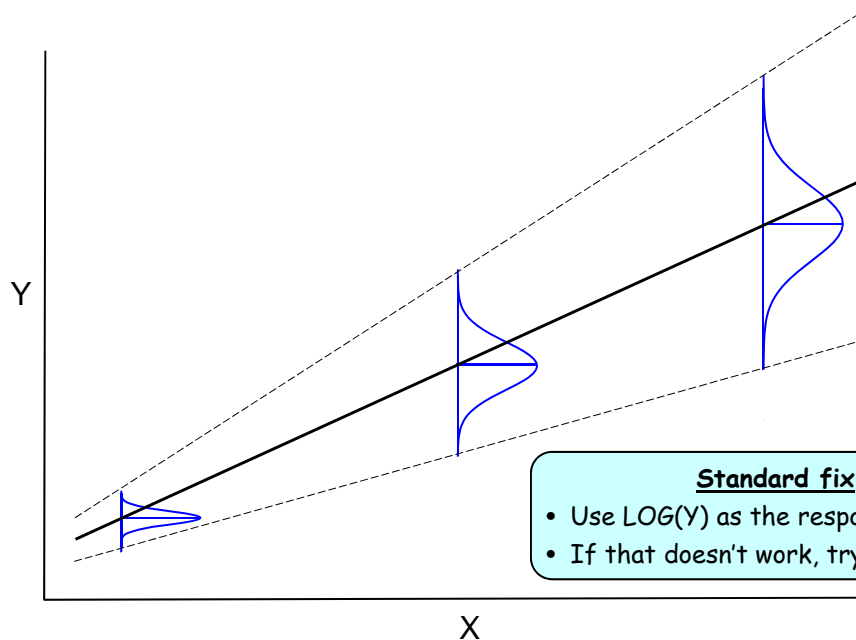
We can always find a sufficiently complex curve passing exactly through any given set of data points. The predictive ability of this “over-fitting” method is notoriously poor. The more successful “Occam” strategy is illustrated by random variation superimposed on a simple linear model.

- ✓  $Y = f(X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots) + \text{noise}$
- ✓ Can't assume  $f(X)$  explains everything (hence noise term)
- ✓ Can't assume  $f(X)$  is linear, but quadratic is sufficient
- ✓ Don't need cubic or higher order models
- ✓  $f(X)$  must include all second order interactive effects
- ✓ Don't need higher order interactive effects

Normal distribution with  $\sigma_Y$  constant  
(does not depend on the  $X$ s)



$\sigma_Y$  proportional to mean  $Y$



**Standard fix**

- Use  $\text{LOG}(Y)$  as the response variable
- If that doesn't work, try  $\text{SQRT}(Y)$

For each of 18 potato chip bags, we have data on

T = bonding temperature

D = bonding time (duration)

Y = bond strength

The best fitting *response surface model* (RSM) is the one whose parameters

$$b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, b_5$$

minimize the sum of squared residuals:

$$\sum_{\{18 \text{ bags}\}} [Y - (b_0 + b_1T + b_2D + b_3TD + b_4T^2 + b_5D^2)]^2$$

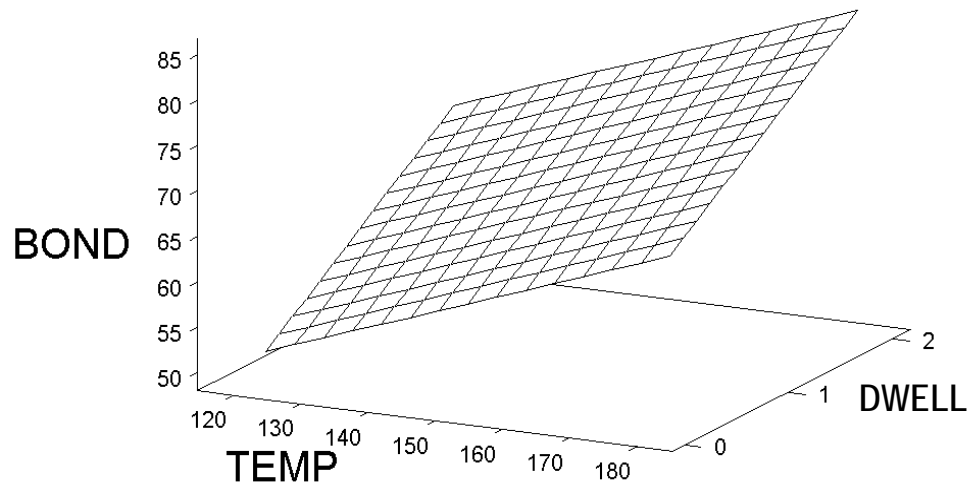
$$\text{Avg. } Y = 87.2 + 8.3(T) + 7.7(D) - 31.8(TD) - 16.1(T^2) - 13.2(D^2)$$

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1	TEMP	DWELL	BOND	Prediction	Noise		
2	-1	-1	11.0	10.08	0.92		
3	-1	-1	8.9	10.08	-1.18		
4	-1	0	63.9	62.80	1.10		
5	-1	0	60.4	62.80	-2.40		
6	-1	1	93.2	89.07	4.13		
7	-1	1	86.5	89.07	-2.57		
8	0	-1	65.7	66.30	-0.60		
9	0	-1	67.7	66.30	1.40		
10	0	0	88.4	87.20	1.20		
11	0	0	88.0	87.20	0.80		
12	0	1	82.0	81.65	0.35		
13	0	1	78.5	81.65	-3.15		
14	1	-1	88.1	90.37	-2.27		
15	1	-1	92.1	90.37	1.73		
16	1	0	77.2	79.45	-2.25		
17	1	0	81.0	79.45	1.55		
18	1	1	39.5	42.08	-2.58		
19	1	1	45.9	42.08	3.82		
20	Sum of squares (SS)		93876.58	=	93792.35	+	84.18
21	Degrees of freedom (DF)		18	=	6	+	12
22	RMSE		Square root of noise (SS/DF)				2.65
23							

least squares  
modeling.xls

*Linear in the Xs*

$$\text{Average Bond} = 67.2 + 8.3(\text{TEMP}) + 8.3(\text{DWELL})$$

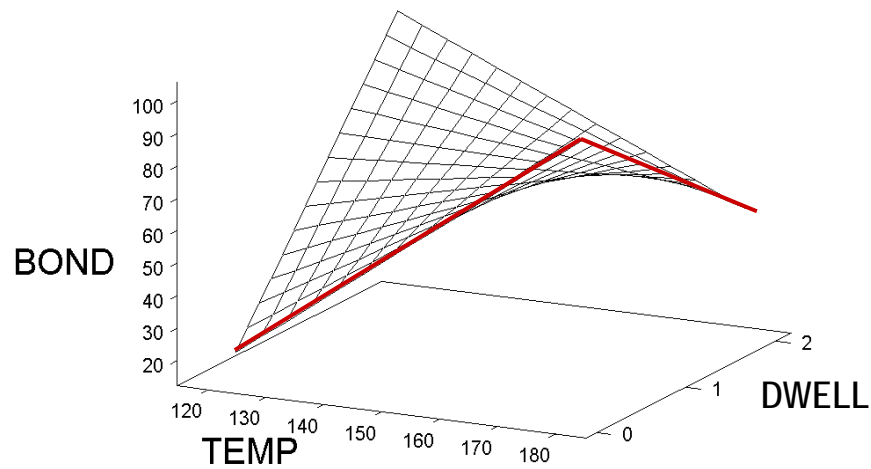


## Notes

Response surface: tilted plane.

Simple linear models like the one shown above are used in screening designs. In many cases, simple linear models fit the data poorly, and do not give accurate predictions. They should not be used for optimization experiments.

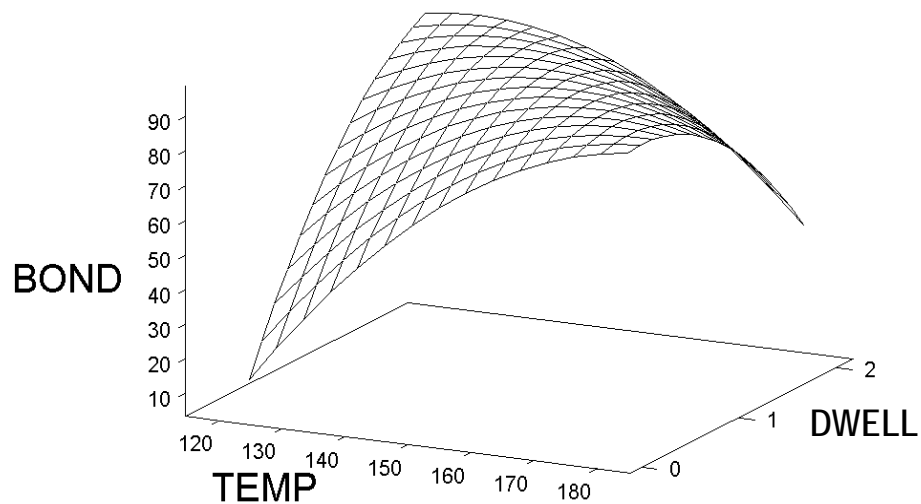
$$\text{Avg. BOND} = 67.2 + 8.3(\text{TEMP}) + 8.3(\text{DWELL}) - 31.5(\text{TEMP} \times \text{DWELL})$$



Response surface: saddle.

Linear interaction models like the one shown above usually fit the data much better than simple linear models. They are good for optimization experiments where all factors are categorical, but they should not be used for optimization experiments involving quantitative factors.

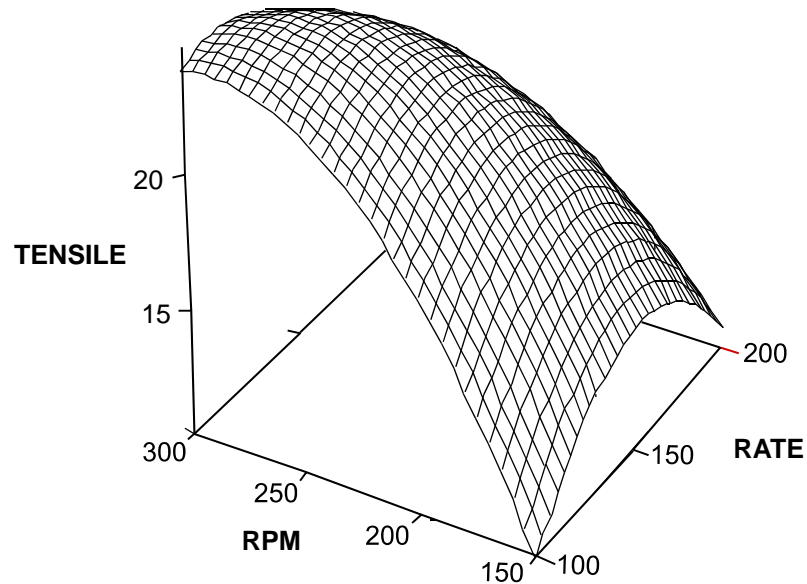
$$\begin{aligned}\text{Avg. BOND} = & 86.8 + 8.3(\text{TEMP}) + 8.1(\text{DWELL}) - 32.4(\text{TEMP} \times \text{DWELL}) \\ & - 15.5(\text{TEMP} \times \text{TEMP}) - 12.9(\text{DWELL} \times \text{DWELL})\end{aligned}$$



Response surface: ridge.

The response surface model (RSM) shown above is the standard model for optimization experiments. It differs from the linear interaction model in that it includes quadratic (squared) terms for all quantitative factors. In most experiments involving quantitative factors, the RSM fits the data much better than the linear interaction model.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Avg. TENSILE} = & 22.5 - 3.3(\text{RATE}) + 3.4(\text{RPM}) - 3.6(\text{RATE} \times \text{RPM}) \\ & - 4.8(\text{RATE} \times \text{RATE}) - 5.6(\text{RPM} \times \text{RPM})\end{aligned}$$

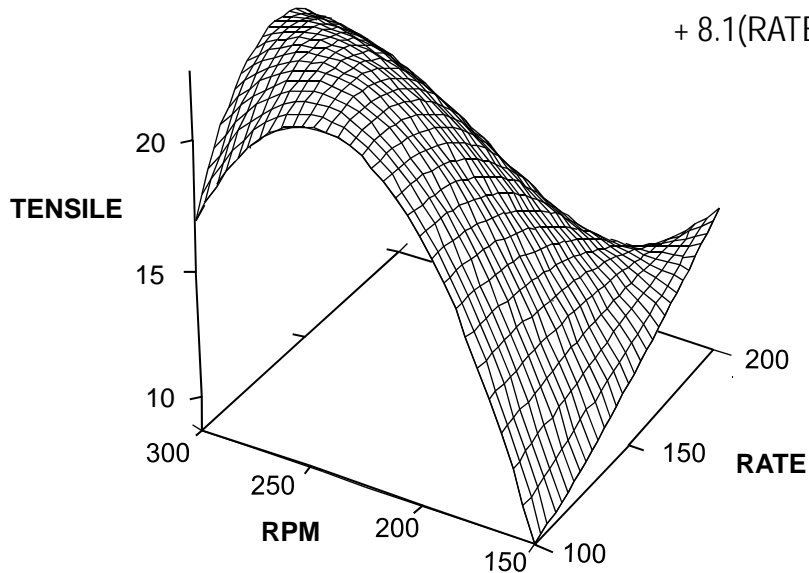


Response surface: hilltop.

Other RSM shapes include inverted saddles, inverted ridges, and bowls.

You can't tell from the plot, but in this example the RSM model does not fit the data very well.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Avg. TENSILE} = & 22.4 - 8.5(\text{RATE}) + 8.6(\text{RPM}) - 3.2(\text{RATE} \times \text{RPM}) \\ & - 6.1(\text{RATE}^2) - 4.8(\text{RPM}^2) - 7.0(\text{RATE}^2 \times \text{RPM}) \\ & + 8.1(\text{RATE} \times \text{RPM}^2)\end{aligned}$$



The shows a more complicated quadratic model fit to the same data as on the previous page. This model turns out to fit the data well.

Model terms like

$$\text{RATE} \times \text{RATE} \times \text{RPM}$$

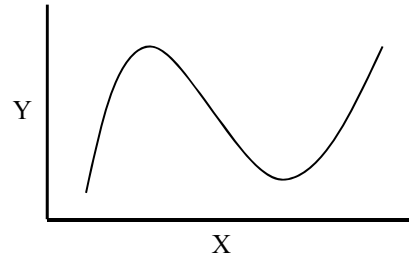
$$\text{RATE} \times \text{RPM} \times \text{RPM}$$

$$\text{RATE} \times \text{RATE} \times \text{RPM} \times \text{RPM}$$

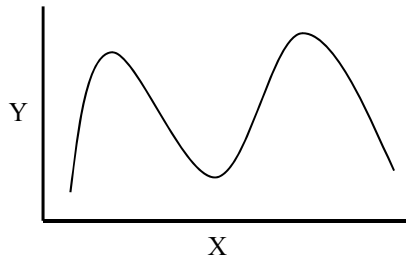
are called *quadratic interactions*. Adding one or more quadratic interactions is a good thing to try when an RSM model does not fit.

3<sup>rd</sup> order polynomial (cubic)

$$\text{Avg. } Y = b_0 + b_1X + b_2X^2 + b_3X^3$$

4<sup>th</sup> order polynomial (quartic)

$$\text{Avg. } Y = b_0 + b_1X + b_2X^2 + b_3X^3 + b_4X^4$$

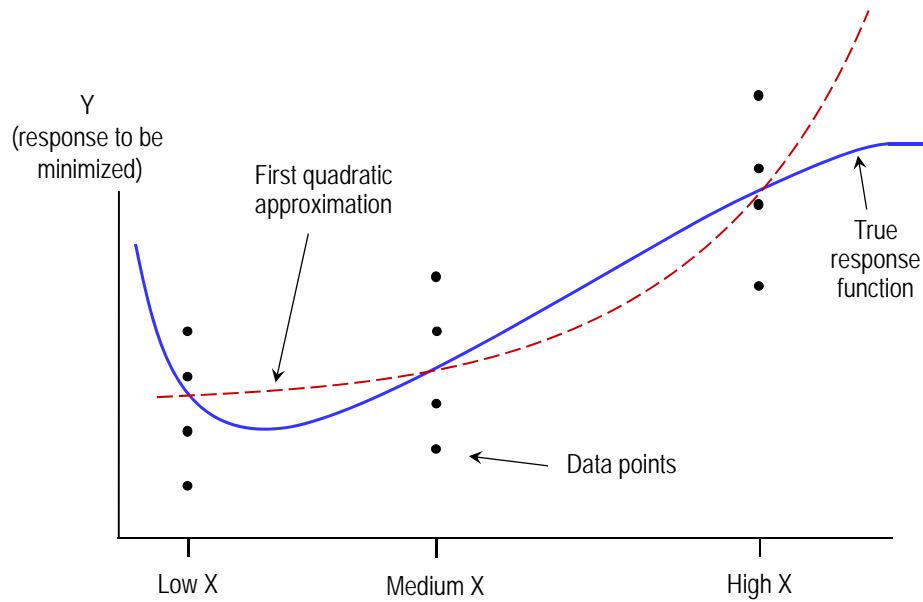


Even though third- or higher-order models may fit the data better than quadratic (second-order) models, they are rarely used in DOE. Why? They require much larger samples sizes for any given set of factors.

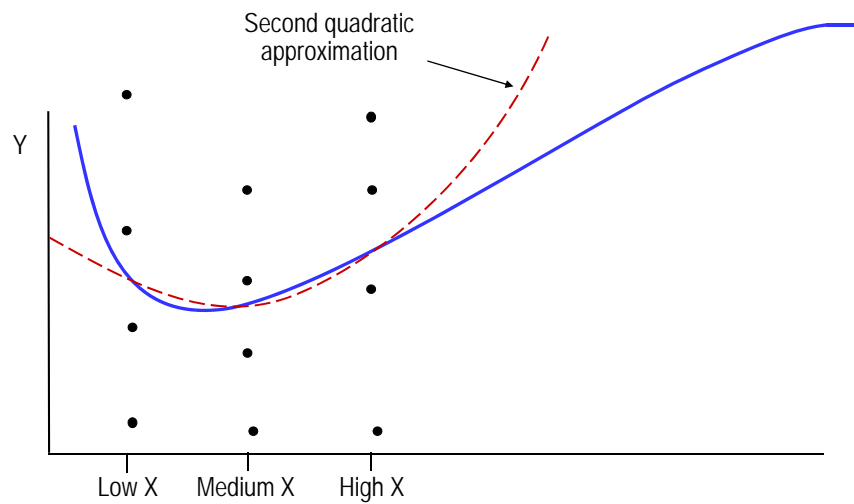
It is much more common to use quadratic models in an iterative fashion. A quadratic model may not fit the data well over a large initial factor space, but it almost always tells us which subset of the initial factor space is most likely to give the results we are looking for. The next step is to run another quadratic experiment in the smaller region. The smaller the factor space, the better the quadratic model will fit the data.

This concept is illustrated on the next page.

*First experiment, wide ranges → “big picture”*



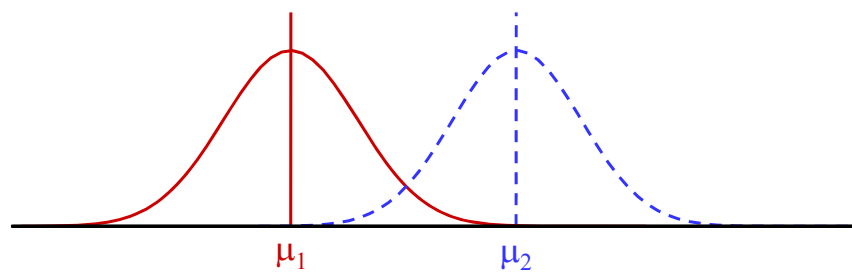
*Second experiment, narrow ranges → accurate modeling*



*Two-level categorical factor*

MATL = Steel or Rubber

$$\text{Average COST} = \begin{cases} \mu_1 & \text{if MATL = Steel} \\ \mu_2 & \text{if MATL = Rubber} \end{cases}$$



Categorical factors are represented by *indicator* variables  
(also known as *dummy* variables)

$$\text{Average COST} = b_0 + b_1 \text{MATL[Steel]}$$

$$\text{MATL[Steel]} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if MATL = Steel} \\ -1 & \text{if MATL = Rubber} \end{cases}$$

## Simple linear model with all factors categorical

343

$$\text{Avg. COST} = b_0$$

$$+ b_1 \text{LGR}[\text{Low}]$$

$$+ b_2 \text{MATL}[\text{Steel}]$$

$$+ b_3 \text{USAGE}[\text{50\%}]$$

$$+ b_4 \text{GRIT}[\text{30}]$$

- Analogy: blue book pricing of used cars
- Base price + extra for power windows  
+ extra for air conditioning  
+ extra for cruise control  
etc.

4.868125

$$+ \text{Match}(\text{LGR}) \begin{cases} \text{"High"} \Rightarrow -0.616875 \\ \text{"Low"} \Rightarrow 0.616875 \\ \text{else} \Rightarrow \end{cases}$$

$$+ \text{Match}(\text{MATL}) \begin{cases} \text{"Rubber"} \Rightarrow 1.145625 \\ \text{"Steel"} \Rightarrow -1.145625 \\ \text{else} \Rightarrow \end{cases}$$

$$+ \text{Match}(\text{USAGE}) \begin{cases} \text{"50\%"} \Rightarrow 1.054375 \\ \text{"75\%"} \Rightarrow -1.054375 \\ \text{else} \Rightarrow \end{cases}$$

$$+ \text{Match}(\text{GRIT}) \begin{cases} \text{"30"} \Rightarrow -0.048125 \\ \text{"50"} \Rightarrow 0.048125 \\ \text{else} \Rightarrow \end{cases}$$

## Categorical interaction model

344

$$\text{Avg. COST} = b_0$$

$$+ b_1 \text{LGR}[\text{Low}]$$

$$+ b_2 \text{MATL}[\text{Steel}]$$

$$+ b_3 \text{USAGE}[\text{50\%}]$$

$$+ b_4 \text{GRIT}[\text{30}]$$

$$+ b_5 \text{LGR}[\text{Low}] \times \text{MATL}[\text{Steel}]$$

$$+ b_6 \text{LGR}[\text{Low}] \times \text{USAGE}[\text{50\%}]$$

$$+ b_7 \text{LGR}[\text{Low}] \times \text{GRIT}[\text{30}]$$

$$+ b_8 \text{MATL}[\text{Steel}] \times \text{USAGE}[\text{50\%}]$$

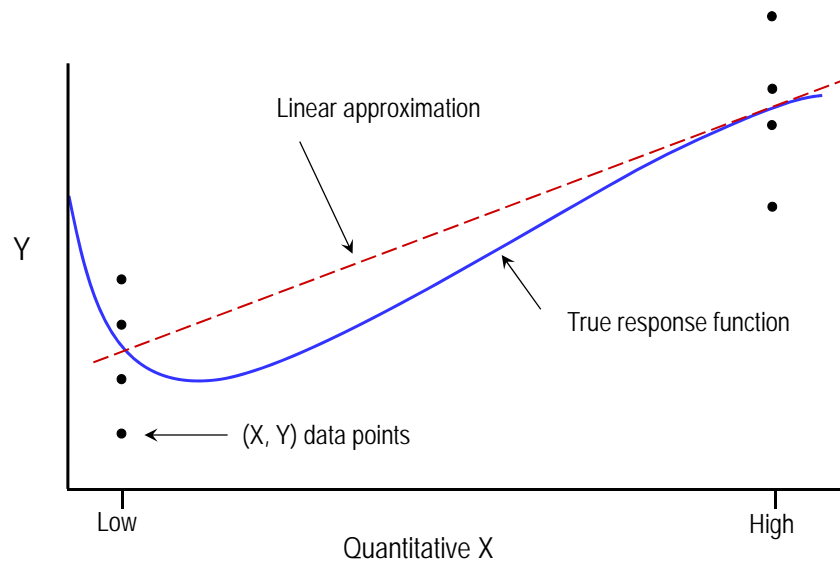
$$+ b_9 \text{MATL}[\text{Steel}] \times \text{GRIT}[\text{30}]$$

$$+ b_{10} \text{USAGE}[\text{50\%}] \times \text{GRIT}[\text{30}]$$

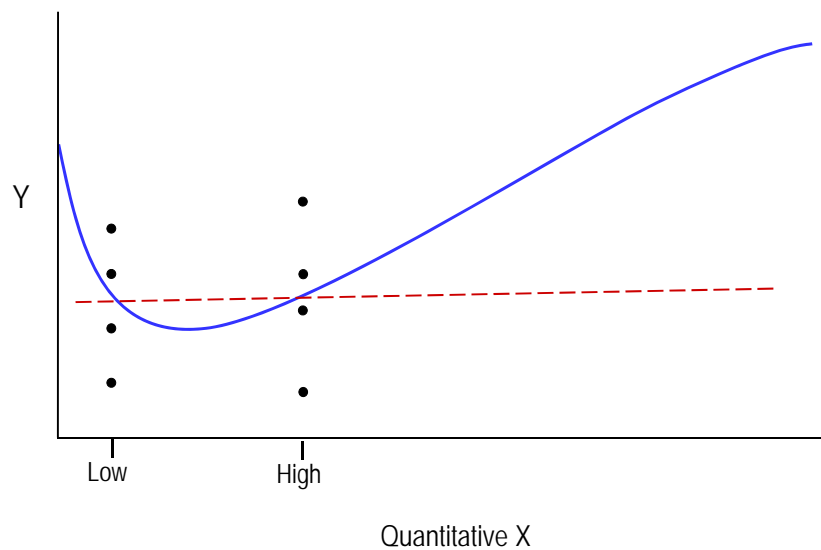
# Factors	4	5	6
Full factorial (FF)	16	32	64
Min. sample size	11	16	22
% of FF	69	50	34

- Bold strategy
- Control group
- Replication
- Randomization
- “Blocking”

*Use the entire feasible operating range in a first experiment*



- Low and high levels of X are too close together
- We mistakenly conclude that X has no effect on Y











*For each factor,  
one of the levels  
should match the  
current value*

Temp	Press	Dwell	Mat'l
120	50	0.2	A
120	100	1.1	B
120	150	2.0	C
150	50	1.1	C
150	100	2.0	A
150	150	0.2	B
180	50	2.0	B
180	100	0.2	C
180	150	1.1	A

The units involved in a DOE may turn out to be uniformly different from those in current production — either better or worse. This can be due to the effects of noise variables on production units, or to special circumstances surrounding the creation and handling of experimental units.









For each factor, one of the DOE levels should match the current state value of that factor. This allows valid comparisons between current state and experimental process settings. This is especially important when non-routine measurements, tests or inspections are applied to experimental units.

	<u>Temp</u>	<u>Press</u>		
<i>Use repeat runs to quantify the noise in the experiment and increase the signal-to-noise ratios</i>	120	50		Experimental units
	120	50		
	120	150		
	120	150		
	180	50		
	180	50		
	180	150		
	180	150		

Replication forces redundancy into the experiment. This is necessary for two reasons:

- To quantify the magnitude of noise in the experimental data — differences between units at the same design point are, by definition, due to noise variables.
- To reduce the influence of noise variables on the experimental results by averaging multiple units at the same design point. In other words, to increase the signal-to-noise ratios.

Assume that you are the person responsible for running the experiment and for the validity of the results. Is there anything about the run order shown above that makes you nervous? Please explain.

	<u>Temp</u>	<u>Press</u>		
<i>Use a random number generator to determine the sequence in which experimental units are created and/or evaluated</i>	120	150		Experimental units
	180	50		
	180	50		
	120	150		
	180	50		
	120	150		
	180	150		
	120	50		

**Benefits**

- Reduces the chance of biased results due to noise variables
- Results are more convincing to skeptics
- Doesn't require control of noise variables

**Drawbacks**

- Impractical when some of the factors are hard to change
- Does not quantify the effects of noise variables

**What happens if you don't randomize?**

- Same thing as driving without car insurance
- Nothing happens, unless you have bad luck
- Warning: strong temptation to do false repeats

*Include noise variables  
as additional factors  
in the experiment*

- Noise variables are used to divide the experiment into homogeneous "blocks"

- Effects of control factors are determined within each block

Temp   Press

120   50



120   150



180   150



180   50



180   150



180   50



120   50



120   150



## Block 1

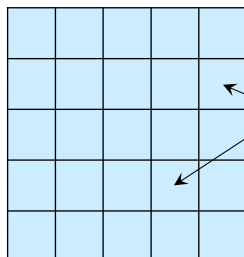
Operator: Bob  
Raw material: Lot 1

## Block 2

Operator: Carol  
Raw material: Lot 2

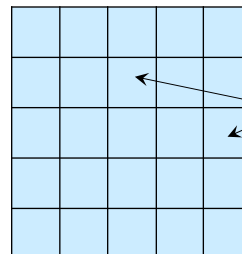
# Agricultural origin of "blocking"

- Want to increase crop yields
- Experimental units are plots of land in a field
- Compare varieties, fertilizers, etc.



Block 1

River



Block 2

- Need 50 plots, not 25
- Have to use a second field
- Differences in the soil will cause differences in yields

- Makes the experiment more representative of the real process
- Makes predictions more reliable
- Temporarily converts noise variables into signal variables
- Quantifies the effects of noise variables
- Increases signal to noise ratios without increasing sample size
- Usually protects against general time trends

## 359

- ## 1. Responses and general goals

360

**Custom Design**

**Responses**

Add Response ▼ Remove Number of Responses...

Response Name	Goal	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	Importance
bond print	Match Target Maximize	.	.	.

**Factors**

Add Factor ▼ Remove Add N Factors 1

Name	Role	Changes	Values
------	------	---------	--------

[Specify Factors](#)

Add a factor by clicking the Add Factor button. Double click on a factor name or level to edit it.

## 2. Factors, ranges for continuous, levels for categorical

361

**Custom Design**

**Responses**

Add Response ▼ Remove Number of Responses...

Response Name	Goal	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	Importance
bond	Match Target	.	.	.
print	Maximize	.	.	.
optional item				

**Factors**

Add Factor ▼ Remove Add N Factors 1

Do not use this option!

Name	Role	Changes	Values
temp	Continuous	Easy	120 180
press	Continuous	Easy	50 150
dwell	Continuous	Easy	0.2 2

Specify Factors

Add a factor by clicking the Add Factor button. Double click on a factor name or level to edit it.

Continue

## 3. Calculate and enter the sample size

362

**Factors**

Add Factor ▼ Remove Add N Factors 1

Name	Role	Changes	Values
temp	Continuous	Easy	120 180
press	Continuous	Easy	50 150
dwell	Continuous	Easy	0.2 2

**Define Factor Constraints**

**Model**

Main Effects Interactions ▼ RSM Cross Powers ▼ Remove Term

Do not use this option!

Name	Estimability
Intercept	Necessary
temp	Necessary
press	Necessary
dwell	Necessary

**Alias Terms**

**Design Generation**

☐ Group runs into random blocks of size: 2

**Number of Runs:**

☐ Minimum 4

☐ Default 8

☒ User Specified 32

Enter value from sample size calculation

#### 4. Specify the blocking variable(s)

363

**Factors**

Add Factor Remove Add N Factors 1

Name	Role	Changes	Values
temp	Continuous	Easy	120 180
press	Continuous	Easy	50 150
dur	Continuous	Easy	0.2 2
Shift	Blocking	Easy	A B

**Define Factor Constraints**

**Model**

Main Effects Interactions RSM Cross Powers Remove Term

Name	Estimability
Intercept	Necessary
temp	Necessary
press	Necessary
dur	Necessary
Shift	Necessary

**Alias Terms**

**Design Generation**

☐ Group runs into random blocks of size: 2

**Number of Runs:**

☐ Minimum 18

☐ Default 18

☒ User Specified 32

• DOE will take 2 shifts → 2 blocks

• Calculated N = 32

• Ask for 16 runs per block

#### 5. Specify the statistical model

364

**Factors**

**Define Factor Constraints**

**Model**

Main Effects Interactions RSM Cross Powers Remove Term

Name	Estimability
Intercept	Necessary
temp	Necessary
press	Necessary
dur	Necessary
Shift	Necessary
temp*temp	Necessary
temp*press	Necessary
press*press	Necessary
temp*dur	Necessary
press*dur	Necessary
dur*dur	Necessary

**Alias Terms**

**Design Generation**

☐ Group runs into random blocks of size: 2

**Number of Runs:**

☐ Minimum 18

☐ Default 32

☒ User Specified 32

Response Surface Model

Don't label your blocks until after you have done this!

## 6. Create the design matrix

365

**Model**

Main Effects Interactions RSM Cross

Name	Estimability
Intercept	Necessary
temp	Necessary
press	Necessary
dur	Necessary
Shift	Necessary
temp*temp	Necessary
temp*press	Necessary
press*press	Necessary
temp*dur	Necessary
press*dur	Necessary
dur*dur	Necessary

**Alias Terms**

**Design Generation**

☐ Group runs into random blocks of size: 2

**Number of Runs:**

☐ Minimum 18  
☐ Default 32  
☒ User Specified 32

**Make Design**

**Design**

Run	temp	press	dur	Shift
1	150	100	1.1	B
2	120	150	2	A
3	180	100	2	A
4	150	50	2	B
5	180	50	1.1	B
6	120	50	2	A
7	150	150	2	A
8	120	150	0.2	A
9	150	100	1.1	A
10	150	100	1.1	A
11	180	50	2	B
12	150	100	0.2	B
13	180	100	1.1	A
14	150	100	1.1	A
15	180	150	2	B
16	150	100	1.1	A
17	120	150	1.1	B
18	150	100	2	B
19	120	100	0.2	B
20	150	100	1.1	B
21	120	50	0.2	A
22	150	50	0.2	B
23	150	150	0.2	A
24	120	50	1.1	B
25	180	100	0.2	B
26	180	150	1.1	A
27	150	150	1.1	B
28	180	150	0.2	B
29	150	50	1.1	A
30	120	100	2	A
31	120	100	1.1	B
32	180	50	0.2	A

## 7. Back up to make changes, or create data table

366

**Design**

Run	temp	press	dur	Shift
1	150	100	1.1	B
2	120	150	2	A
3	180	100	2	A
4	150	50	2	B
5	180	50	1.1	B
6	120	50	2	A
7	150	150	2	A
8	120	150	0.2	A
9	150	100	1.1	A
10	150	100	1.1	A
11	180	50	2	B
12	150	100	0.2	B
13	180	100	1.1	A
14	150	100	1.1	A
15	180	150	2	B
16	150	100	1.1	A
17	120	150	1.1	B
18	150	100	2	B
19	120	100	0.2	B
20	150	100	1.1	B
21	120	50	0.2	A
22	150	50	0.2	B
23	150	150	0.2	A
24	120	50	1.1	B
25	180	100	0.2	B
26	180	150	1.1	A
27	150	150	1.1	B
28	180	150	0.2	B
29	150	50	1.1	A
30	120	100	2	A
31	120	100	1.1	B
32	180	50	0.2	A

**Custom Design**

Responses

Factors

Define Factor Constraints

Model

Alias Terms

Design

Design Evaluation

Output Options

Run Order: Randomize within Blocks

**Make Table**

**Back**

Rarely need to change this

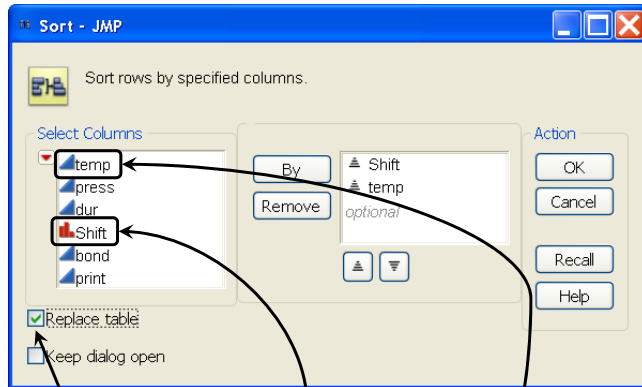
Use this if you want to make changes

Use this to create an editable data table

## 8. Sort "hard-to-change" factors within blocks, save

367

Tables → Sort



Double-click here . . . then here

Click here . . . then OK

32/0 Rows	temp	press	dur	Shift
1	120	150	1.1	A
2	120	50	2	A
3	120	100	2	A
4	120	100	0.2	A
5	120	150	1.1	A
6	150	50	2	A
7	150	100	1.1	A
8	150	50	1.1	A
9	150	150	0.2	A
10	150	100	0.2	A
11	150	100	0.2	A
12	180	150	2	A
13	180	100	2	A
14	180	150	1.1	A
15	180	50	0.2	A
16	180	100	1.1	A
17	120	150	0.2	B
18	120	100	2	B
19	120	150	2	B
20	120	50	0.2	B
21	120	50	1.1	B
22	150	100	1.1	B
23	150	100	1.1	B
24	150	100	1.1	B
25	150	150	2	B
26	150	150	2	B
27	150	50	1.1	B
28	150	100	1.1	B
29	180	50	2	B
30	180	100	1.1	B
31	180	50	0.2	B
32	180	150	0.2	B

Notes

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## Exercises

369

Use the Custom Design process to create RSM design matrices for the exercises on the following pages. In addition to special instructions given in each case, follow these general instructions:

- If a numerical range is given, the factor is continuous.
- If levels are given, the factor is categorical.
- Use the given sample size when creating the design.
- Always sort the data table by the blocking factor.
- Some factors are “hard to change” (temperature, for example). Sort by hard-to-change factors secondary to the blocking factor. Leave other factors randomized.
- For each exercise, have the instructor review your matrix when you are finished.

For these exercises, you don't have to specify the Y variables

## Exercise 21.1

370

Control factors	Levels	
Heat treat	Anneal	Solution/age
Polish	Chemical	Mechanical
Peen	Yes	No

- Hard to change factors: *none*
- Blocking factor: *none*
- Experimental unit: *one small test piece*
- Sample size: 12 (constraint on available test fixtures, not from a calculation)

## Exercise 21.2

371

Control factors	Levels	
Contact wheel land-groove ratio (LGR)	Low	High
Contact wheel material (MATL)	Steel	Rubber
Belt usage limit (USAGE)	“50%”	“75%”
Belt grit size (GRIT)	30	50

- Hard to change factors: *LGR* and *MATL* (have to replace one wheel with another)
- Blocking factor: *Time of day* (morning vs. afternoon) (Why?)
- Experimental unit: *one large casting*
- Calculated sample size: 18

## Exercise 21.3

372

Control factors	Ranges
Force	70 to 150
Energy	275 to 325
Amplitude	70 to 90

- Hard to change factors: *none*
- Blocking factor: *Cavity* (parts are molded from 4 tool cavities)
- Experimental unit: *one welded plastic container*
- Calculated sample size: 68

## 22 Sample Size Calculation

373

- Sample size (N) is the total number of experimental units
- Also known as “number of runs”

User inputs (Other than factor info)	Abbreviations
Expected standard deviation of noise/error/residual/unexplained variation in Y	RMSE, $\sigma_{\text{noise}}$
Acceptable margin of error for predicting average Y in the population	MOE
Smallest change in average Y worth detecting (difference to detect)	DTD

### Notes

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RMSE ( $\sigma_{\text{noise}}$ ) can sometimes be estimated from historical data or trial runs before the experiment. It could also be the RMSE from a previous experiment with the same Y variable. As a last resort, data on a similar process or product could be used.

MOE and DTD are expressed in the units of the Y variable, not as percentages or proportions. The values assigned to MOE and DTD are judgments that must be made by the project team.

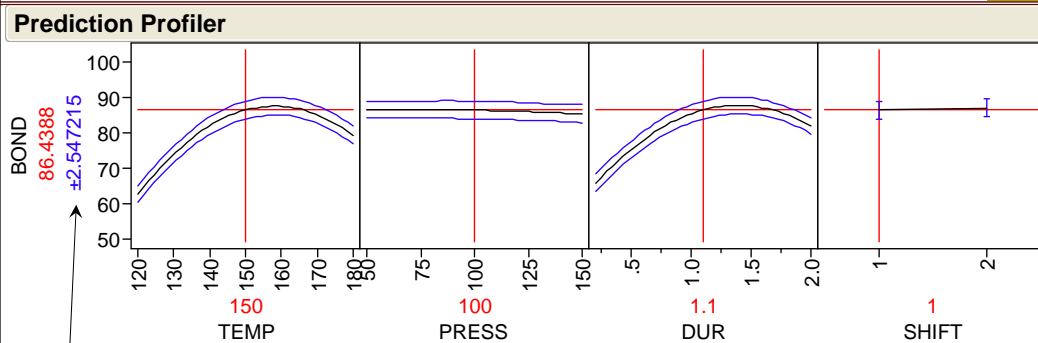
## Interpreting MOE and DTD

375

Y variable	Population parameter to which MOE and DTD apply
Dimension	Average dimension
Strength	Average strength
Cycle time	Average cycle time
Variability in Y	Standard deviation
Pass/fail	Fraction or % defective
Time to failure	Failure probability at a given mission time, or Time with given reliability

## MOE and DTD will vary over the factor space

376



- Profiler for an RSM model with 4 factors, N = 32
- MOE is 2.55 at the settings shown above, but it varies from 2.08 to 2.86
- The most we can get from a sample size calculation is an *average* MOE or DTD

- AVP is a function of the design matrix, including N
- Average MOE is related to AVP

$$\text{Average (MOE)} \approx 2(\text{RMSE})\sqrt{\text{AVP}}$$

- Solve this to find the required AVP for your expected RMSE and desired MOE

$$\text{Required AVP} \approx \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{\text{MOE}}{\text{RMSE}} \right)^2$$

- It is most common to specify DTD rather than MOE
- Often DTD is expressed in terms of a project metric:  
(Current state value) minus (Goal value)
- There is a relationship:  $\text{MOE} \approx \text{DTD}/\sqrt{2}$
- From this we get

$$\text{Required AVP} \approx \frac{1}{8} \left( \frac{\text{DTD}}{\text{RMSE}} \right)^2$$

## Steps for DOE sample size calculation

379

1. Determine your expected RMSE and desired DTD.
2. Calculate the required AVP.
3. In JMP, select DOE → *Custom Design* → red triangle → *Optimality Criterion* → *Make I–Optimal Design*.
4. Enter your factors into *Custom Design*. (For categorical factors, you must give the number of levels. Except for this, everything can be left generic.)
5. Select the statistical model (usually RSM).
6. Use *Make Design* to calculate AVP for each N you want to try.
7. Use *Back* to increase N until AVP is just below the value in step 2.

## Example

380

- For the bond strength experiment, the design team chose:

$$\text{DTD} = 3 \text{ psi}$$

- Based on the standard deviation of bond strength under stable process conditions in the past, they chose:

$$\text{RMSE} = 2.1 \text{ psi}$$

- Plug into the formula:

$$\text{AVP} = \frac{1}{8} \left( \frac{\text{DTD}}{\text{RMSE}} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{8} \left( \frac{3}{2.1} \right)^2 = 0.255102$$

## Example (cont'd)

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Custom Design

Responses

Factors

Add Factor Remove Add N Factors 1

Name	Role	Changes	Values
X1	Continuous	Easy	-1 1
X2	Continuous	Easy	-1 1
X3	Continuous	Easy	-1 1
X4	Categorical	Easy	L1 L2

Define Factor Constraints

Model

Main Effects Interactions RSM Cross Powers Remove Term

Name	Estimability
Intercept	Necessary
X1	Necessary
X2	Necessary
X3	Necessary
X4	Necessary
X1*X1	Necessary
X1*X2	Necessary
X2*X2	Necessary

Design Generation

☐ Group runs into random blocks of size: 2

Number of Runs:

- Minimum 14
- Default 16
- User Specified 16 32 54

Make Design

Design Diagnostics

I Optimal Design  
D Efficiency 43.55102  
G Efficiency 93.56364  
A Efficiency 30.24629  
Average Variance of Prediction 0.635172  
Design Creation Time (seconds) 0.066667

Design Diagnostics

I Optimal Design  
D Efficiency 49.61847  
G Efficiency 80.47364  
A Efficiency 36.99781  
Average Variance of Prediction 0.254282  
Design Creation Time (seconds) 0.133333

Design Diagnostics

I Optimal Design  
D Efficiency 49.45745  
G Efficiency 76.53297  
A Efficiency 38.47656  
Average Variance of Prediction 0.148381  
Design Creation Time (seconds) 0.216667

## Notes

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Shown on the left is the *Custom Design* “mock up” for an RSM experiment with 3 quantitative factors and 1 categorical factor with 2 levels. Shown on the right are the calculated AVPs for sample sizes 16, 32, and 54. For each sample size, click on *Make Design*. The AVP is given in the *Design Diagnostics* element. To do another calculation, click on *Back* and repeat this process.

The AVP for  $N = 32$  is just under our require AVP (0.255). This is the sample size that was chosen for this experiment.

A disturbing feature of the AVP calculation is that it may vary when you hit *Make Design* multiple times with the same sample size. This happens because JMP may not select the same design every time. Fortunately, the variation in AVP isn't large enough to make a significant difference the sample size.

## Exercise 22.1

383

We are planning an experiment to optimize a monofilament extrusion process with 4 continuous factors. A key response variable is *tensile strength*. We want to do a sample size calculation based on the following information:

- The standard deviation of *tensile* in recent production during stable periods is 2314.4 psi.
- The difference to detect (DTD) in mean *tensile* is 3000 psi.

Open *LSSV2 other stuff\ sample size calculator*, go the sheet *AVP for DOE (cont Y)*. Enter the information given above to get the required AVP. Use this to determine the required sample size.

## Exercise 22.2

384

We are planning an experiment to optimize an ultrasonic welding process with 3 continuous factors and a 4-level categorical factor. A key response variable is the *weld depth*. We want to do a sample size calculation based on the following information:

- The standard deviation of *weld depth* in recent production during stable periods is 0.0236 mm.
- The difference to detect (DTD) in mean *weld depth* is 0.03 mm.

Open *LSSV2 other stuff\ sample size calculator*, go the sheet *AVP for DOE (cont Y)*. Enter the information given above to get the required AVP. Use this to determine the required sample size.

### Exercise 22.3

385

Calculate the sample size for this automotive paint experiment. The experimental units are  $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ " panels. The Y variable is % gloss. The standard deviation of Y is about 2.5. In the company's experience, customers cannot perceive a difference in gloss of less than 5 percentage points. Based on this, 5 was chosen as the DTD.

<i>Factor</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Level 1</i>	<i>Level 2</i>	<i>Level 3</i>	<i>Level 4</i>
Resin amount	25 - 75				
Catalyst amount	0 - 1				
Pigment amount	1 - 5				
Resin type		Acrylic	Polymer	Urethane	
Catalyst type		Tin	Zinc		
Pigment type		Cb	FeO <sub>2</sub>	TiO <sub>2</sub>	

### Exercise 22.4

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Calculate the sample size for this second automotive paint experiment. The experimental units are  $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ " panels. The Y variable is % gloss. The standard deviation of Y is about 2.5. In the company's experience, customers cannot perceive a difference in gloss of less than 5 percentage points. Based on this, 5 was chosen as the DTD.

<i>Factor</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Level 1</i>	<i>Level 2</i>	<i>Level 3</i>	<i>Level 4</i>
Addition amount	1 - 5				
Addition type		Acrylic	Oil	Polymer	Urethane
Addition point		Grind	Let-down	Post	
Addition method		Cow	Lift	Shaker	



## 23 Workshop: Paper Helicopters

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Notes

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## Helicopter DOE

We want to maximize the flight time of paper helicopters dropped from a fixed height. Here are the factors and levels:

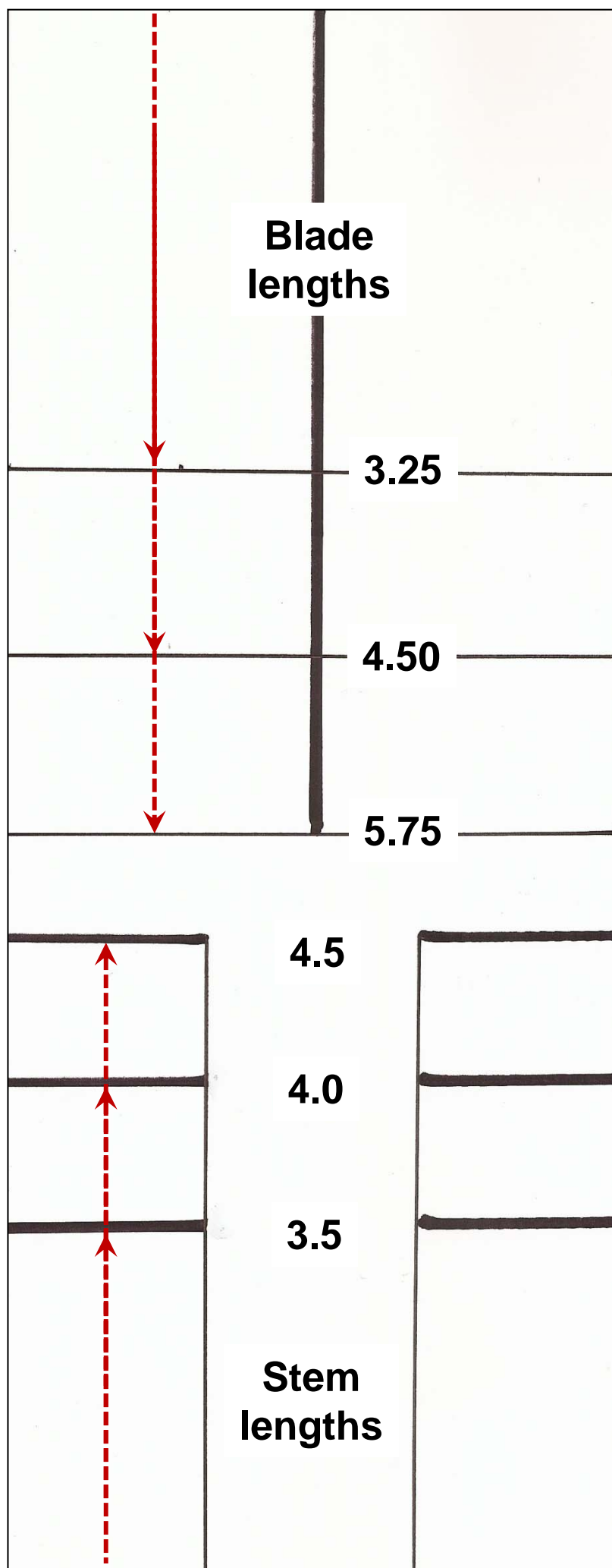
Factor	Type	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Paper	Categorical	Light	Heavy	
Blade length	Continuous	3.25"	4.5"	5.75"
Stem length	Continuous	3.5"	4.0"	4.5"
Midriff taper	Categorical	No	Yes	
Paper clip	Categorical	Small	Large	

For continuous factors you enter only the low and high levels

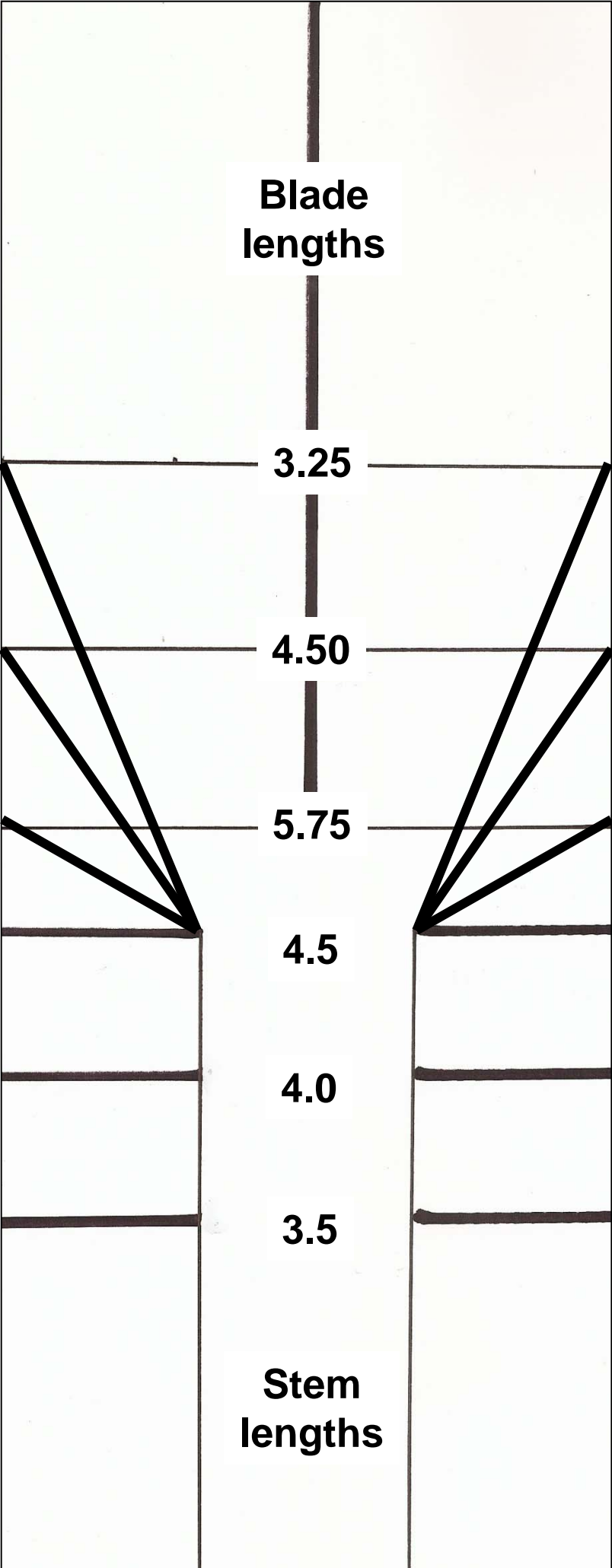
1. Do a sample size calculation.
2. The instructor will tell you how many blocks will be needed. Create a design matrix with the calculated sample size and the indicated number of blocks.
3. Paper will be treated as a hard-to-change factor. Sort the matrix accordingly.
4. Save the data table as *Helicopter DOE*.
5. We will be dividing into teams to run this experiment. The instructor will show each team how to build the helicopters.
6. Build the helicopters called for in Block 1 of the design matrix in the data table saved by *one* of the team members. (The matrix produced by Custom Design will be different for each person.)
7. *Double-check the helicopters against the matrix.*
8. Fly the helicopters, enter the flight times into the data table.
9. For Block 2, everyone changes manufacturing jobs. Block 1 people will provide cross-training as needed before starting Block 2. The new teams will then build the helicopters called for in Block 2.
10. *Double-check the helicopters against the matrix.*
11. Fly the helicopters. The metrology teams should be the same as in Block 1. Enter the flight times into the data table.

12. When the data entry is complete, the data table should be saved and shared with all team members. Each team member is to independently run the analysis. Find the best factor settings, the resulting predicted average flight time, and the RMSE.
13. If different team members get different results, find the reasons for these differences and make the necessary corrections.
14. Build a confirmation helicopter using the best factor settings.
15. Fly and time the confirmation helicopter. The confirmation flight time should fall within 2 RMSEs of your predicted average flight time.
16. Save your script and data table.

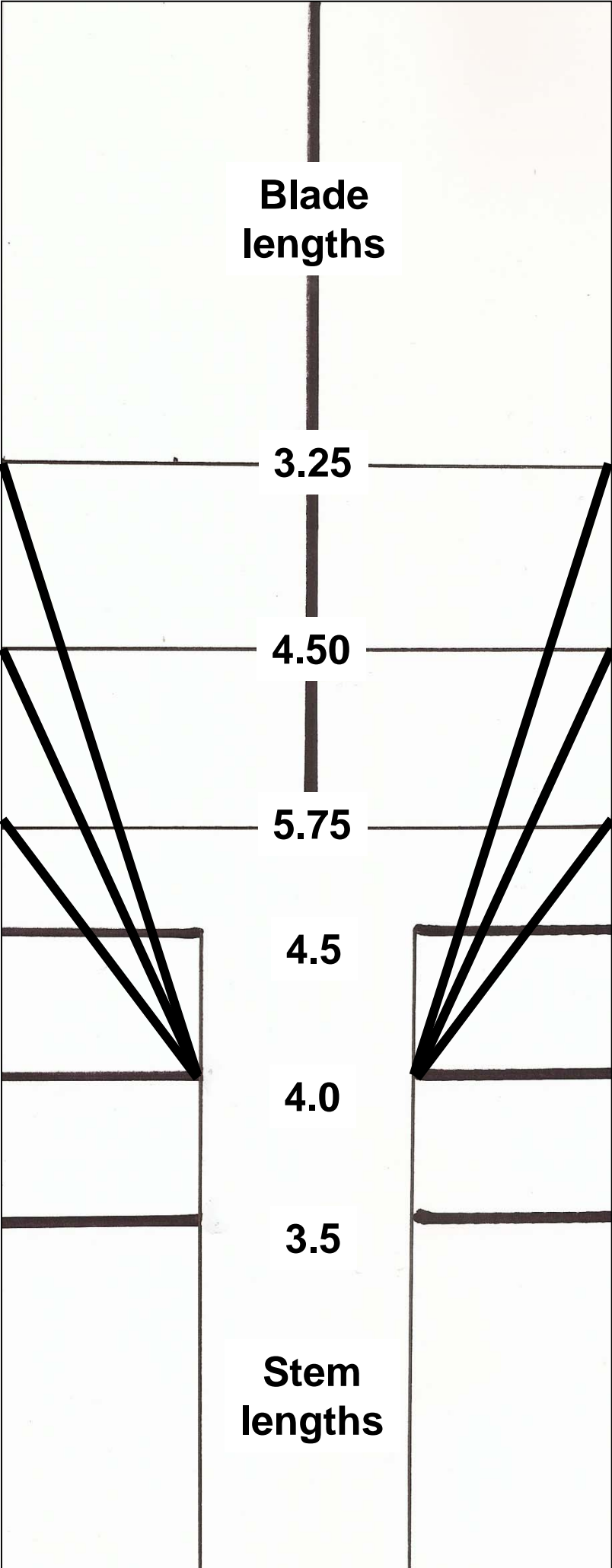
**No taper**



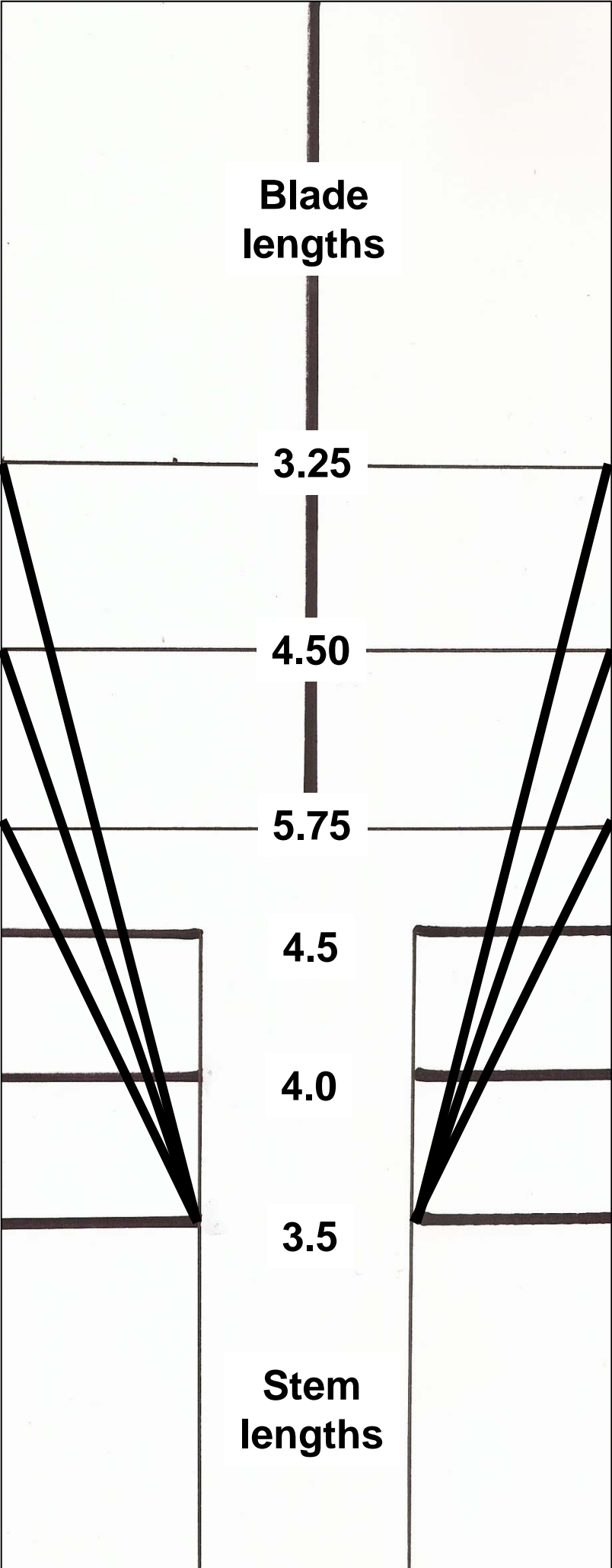
**Tapers  
with  
4.5" stem**



**Tapers  
with  
4.0" stem**



**Tapers  
with  
3.5" stem**



- Experiments may have more than one response variable
- You can optimize each response separately . . .
- . . . but you will get different answers for each response!

In real experiments there are always multiple response variables. If you think you have just one, you haven't finished planning your experiment. For example, any change you make to a process could affect multiple Y variables. All of these should be considered as possible response variables for your experiment.

If there are only two factors, we can jointly optimize multiple responses by overlaying their contour plots. The more factors there are, the more difficult this becomes. In this section we introduce and illustrate the most widely used general technique for jointly optimizing multiple responses when there are three or more factors.

## Example 1

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### Response BOND

#### Effect Tests

Source	Nparm	DF	Sum of Squares	F Ratio	Prob > F
TEMP(120,180)	1	1	1540.835	366.0070	<.0001*
PRESS(50,150)	1	1	8.439	2.0046	0.1715
DUR(0.2,2)	1	1	1606.813	381.6793	<.0001*
TEMP*TEMP	1	1	1363.630	323.9142	<.0001*
TEMP*PRESS	1	1	14.607	3.4697	0.0766
PRESS*PRESS	1	1	1.385	0.3290	0.5724
TEMP*DUR	1	1	20235.249	4806.642	<.0001*
PRESS*DUR	1	1	0.759	0.1804	0.6754
DUR*DUR	1	1	715.715	170.0096	<.0001*
SHIFT	1	1	3.578	0.8499	0.3671

### Response PRI NT

#### Effect Tests

Source	Nparm	DF	Sum of Squares	F Ratio	Prob > F
TEMP(120,180)	1	1	6.821113	85.3929	<.0001*
PRESS(50,150)	1	1	25.625986	320.8095	<.0001*
DUR(0.2,2)	1	1	2.121674	26.5611	<.0001*
TEMP*TEMP	1	1	2.148242	26.8937	<.0001*
TEMP*PRESS	1	1	0.300304	3.7595	0.0661
PRESS*PRESS	1	1	0.257674	3.2258	0.0869
TEMP*DUR	1	1	1.613751	20.2024	0.0002*
PRESS*DUR	1	1	1.065140	13.3344	0.0015*
DUR*DUR	1	1	1.372401	17.1810	0.0005*
SHIFT	1	1	0.137813	1.7253	0.2032

## Notes

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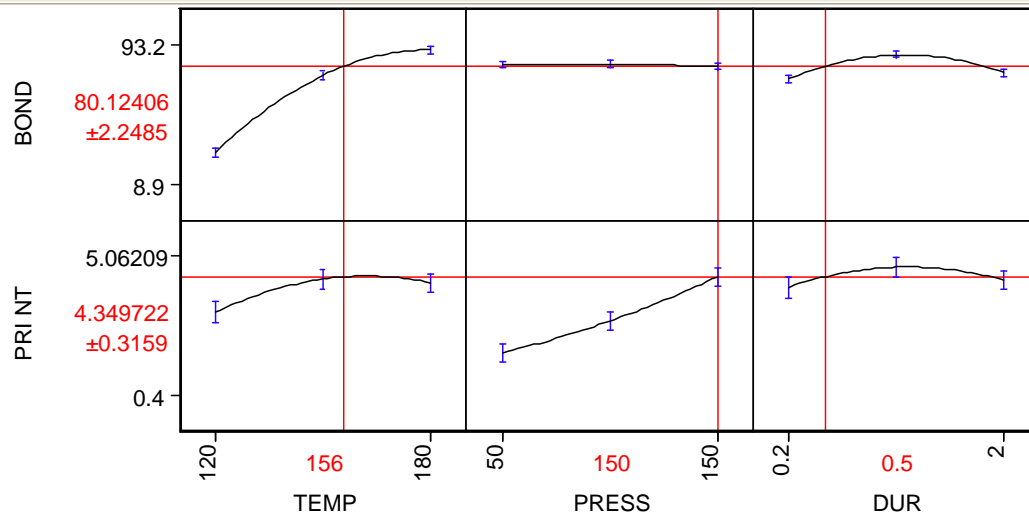
The data table *heat sealing 2.jmp* contains the data from an experiment to optimize the sealing of potato chip bags. In addition to bond strength (BOND) we now have a second Y variable PRINT, a rating of cosmetic quality based on visual inspection. PRINT is defined so that higher is better.

TEMP and DWELL have significant linear and quadratic effects on BOND. PRESS has very little effect on BOND, but a big effect on PRINT. This is good news: it means we can use PRESS to bring PRINT up as high as possible, then use TEMP and/or DWELL to get the BOND we want.

SHIFT, a blocking factor, came up insignificant for both responses. Is this good or bad?

We want BOND = 80 and PRINT as large as possible.  
Here is a solution:

Prediction Profiler

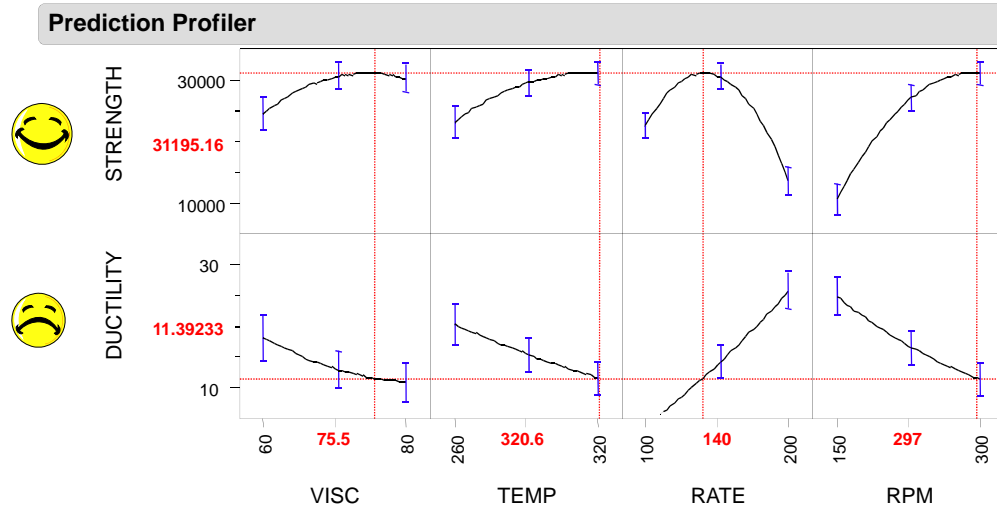


In this example it is easy to find solutions using the *Prediction Profiler*. Obviously, PRESS should be 150, because this increases PRINT without significantly affecting BOND. Once we have done that, there are many combinations of TEMP and DWELL that predict 80 psi for BOND. One such combination is shown above.

## Example 2

395

(VISC, TEMP, RATE, RPM)  $\approx$  (76, 321, 140, 297)  
DUCTILITY  $\approx$  11%



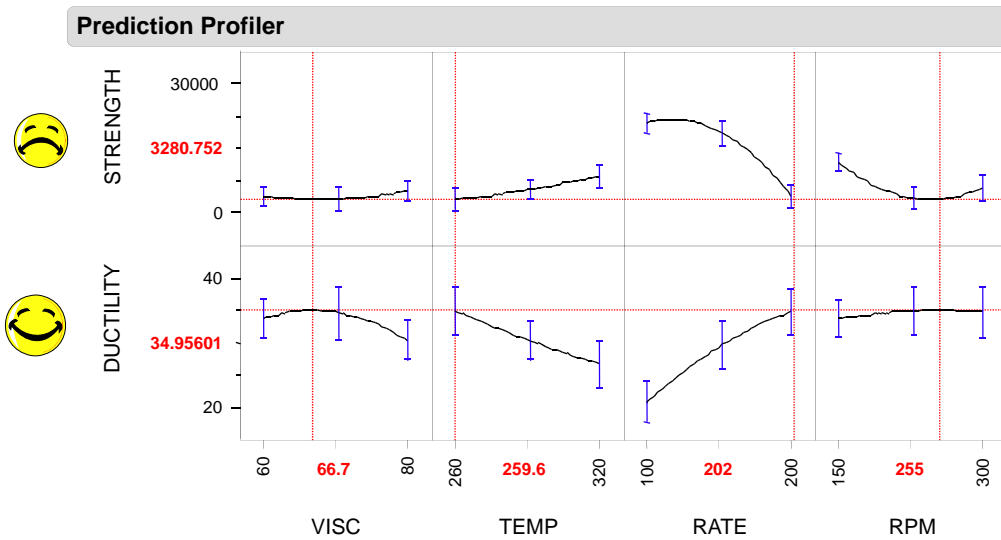
## Notes

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The data table *extrusion 2.jmp* contains data from an experiment to optimize the mechanical properties of an extruded plastic material. We want STRENGTH as high as possible while maintaining a lower bound of 20 for DUCTILITY.

As shown above, it is easy to find a great solution for STRENGTH just by visually exploring the *Prediction Profiler*, but the resulting DUCTILITY is too low.

(VISC, TEMP, RATE, RPM)  $\approx$  (67, 260, 202, 255)  
STRENGTH  $\approx$  3281

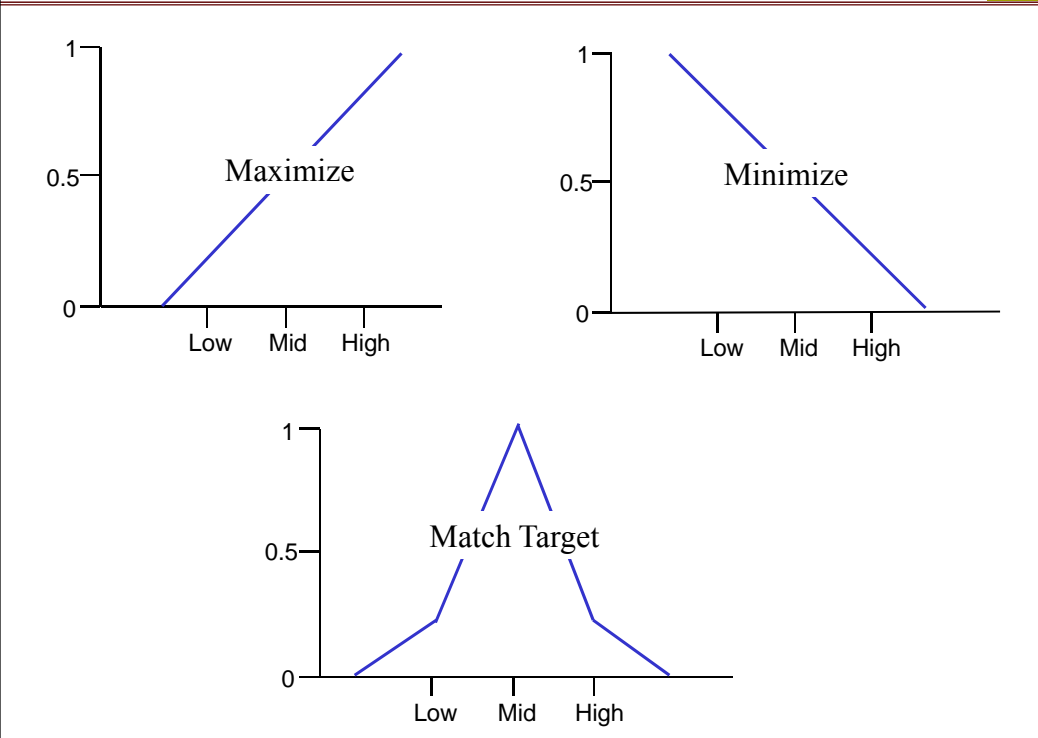


As shown above, it is easy to find a great solution for DUCTILITY just by visually exploring the *Prediction Profiler*, but the resulting STRENGTH is very low.

- Each response has a goal (minimize, maximize or target)
- Define a “desirability function” for each response
- Combine the individual desirabilities into a single overall desirability function
- Maximize the overall desirability to jointly optimize all responses

*Desirability* is a unitless quantity between 0 and 1, defined so that higher is better. JMP supplies default desirability functions based on the experimental data for your response variables. You must redefine the desirability functions so that they represent your objectives for each response variable.

You start by setting the general goal for each response: *Maximize*, *Minimize* or *Match Target*. Then you specify low, middle, and high data values to fine tune the shape of the desirability functions.



The desirability function is increasing for *Maximize* responses and decreasing for *Minimize* responses. It is bell-shaped for *Match Target* responses.

For *Minimize* responses with a lower bound of 0, it is a good idea to make the *Low* value equal to 0. Examples are number of defects, fraction defective, cycle time, standard deviation, cost of waste, etc.

The low and high values for a *Match Target* response are used to define the allowable deviation from the target value.

The default overall desirability for  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  is

$$\sqrt{(Y_1 \text{ desirability}) \times (Y_2 \text{ desirability})}$$

This can be customized to

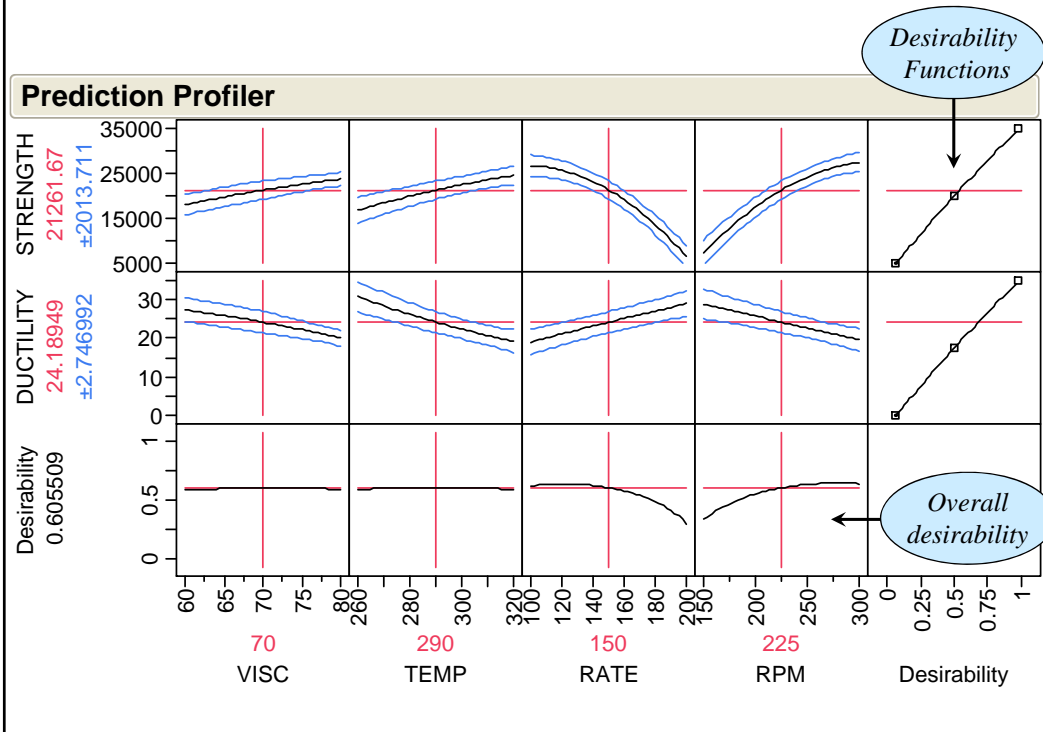
$$(Y_1 \text{ desirability})^{w_1} (Y_2 \text{ desirability})^{w_2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} w_1 &= \text{weight} = \text{relative importance of } Y_1 \\ w_2 &= \text{weight} = \text{relative importance of } Y_2 \\ w_1 + w_2 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

The overall desirability function is calculated as a geometric mean of the desirability functions for individual response variables. It is important to use a geometric mean instead of an arithmetic mean. With the geometric mean, the overall desirability will be zero whenever any individual response desirability is zero. This prevents the optimization algorithm from finding solutions that are excellent for some responses but completely unacceptable for others.

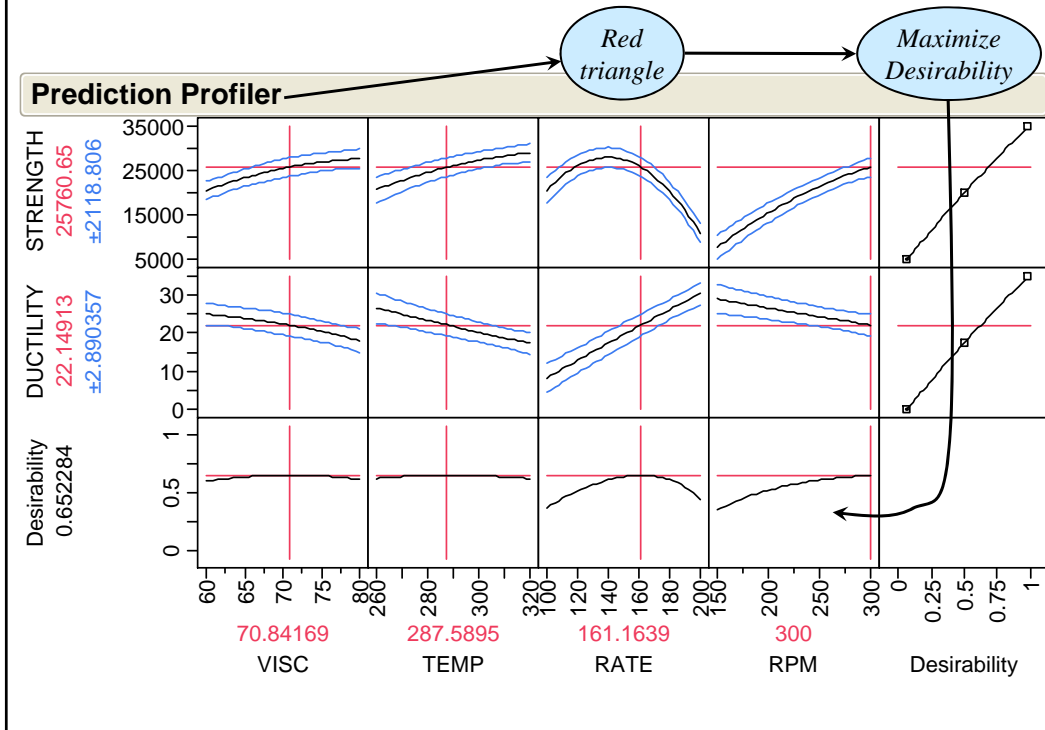
A weighted geometric mean can be used. The weights (called *importance* in JMP) allow users to specify relative priorities for the responses. The higher the importance, the greater the influence the response has in determining the overall solution found by the optimization algorithm.

You can enter any positive numbers for the importance. The program automatically normalizes them to add up to 1.



Here is the default *Prediction Profiler* for the four-factor extrusion experiment. The individual desirability functions are shown in the right-most column. In this case they are both increasing functions because our general objective for both responses is *Maximize*.

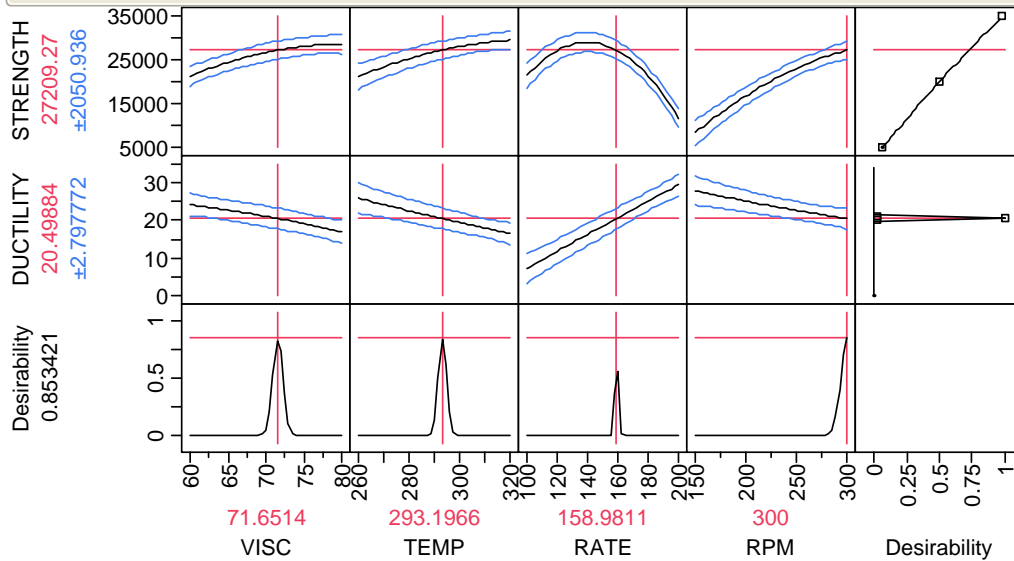
The overall desirability is a function of the experimental factors, and is shown in the bottom row. By default, it is the unweighted geometric mean of the individual desirability functions.



Here is the *Prediction Profiler* after selecting *Maximize Desirability* from the red triangle menu. We have increased STRENGTH from 21262 to 25761. DUCTILITY has dropped from 24.2 to 22.1, but it is still greater than 20.

In presenting these results to a group of stakeholders, including some engineers, the project team is challenged to increase the STRENGTH even further. Based on knowledge of the extruded material, it is known that this would require a further drop in DUCTILITY. This is confirmed by examination of the *Prediction Profiler* (please convince yourself this is true). With DUCTILITY currently at 22.1, there is a good possibility we can increase STRENGTH without driving DUCTILITY below 20.

## Prediction Profiler



## Notes

To obtain the results shown above, double-click in the individual *Desirability* pane for DUCTILITY (on the right), change the specifications as shown below, then run *Maximize Desirability* again.

**JMP: Response Goal**

Match Target

DUCTILITY	Values	Desirability
High:	21	0.0183
Middle:	20.5	1
Low:	20	0.0183
Importance:	1	

We have increased STRENGTH to 27209 by allowing DUCTILITY to fall to 20.5.

From the output shown above, are sure that average DUCTILITY will exceed 20?

## Exercise 24.1

411

- (a) Open or go to *heat sealing 2*. Run the model script. Use the *Effects Tests* elements for *Bond* and *Print* to prune out any model terms with  $P > 0.15$  for both responses. Re-run the model as needed.
- (b) Go to the *Prediction Profiler* for your final model. Our target for mean *Bond* is 80, with a tolerance of  $\pm 5$ . The highest (best) possible value for mean *Print* is 5. We require mean *Print* to be greater than 4. Modify the desirability functions for *Bond* and *Print* accordingly. On the red triangle menu for the *Prediction Profiler*, select *Save Desirabilities*.
- (c) Use *Maximize Desirability* to find the optimal factor settings. Have we achieved our objectives?

## Exercise 24.1 (cont'd)

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- d) The Production Manager is unhappy with our solution. It achieves excellent *Bond* and *Print*, but the proposed increase in *Dwell* would reduce throughput from 300 to 50 bags per minute!  
  
To look for a compromise, select *Reset Factor Grid* on the *Prediction Profiler* red triangle. Click OK for *Temp* and *Press*. We want to lock the value of *Dwell* at a low value, say 0.5. Type 0.5 for *Current Value*, check the *Lock Factor Setting* box, then click OK. The vertical line on the *Dwell* profile should now be solid.
- e) Use *Maximize Desirability* to find the constrained optimal factor settings. Is everybody happy now?
- f) Save your script, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 24.2

413

- a) Assembly of inkjet print cartridges includes an ultrasonic welding operation with control parameters *Force*, *Energy* and *Amplitude*. The Y variables are *Weld Depth* and *Leak Rate*. The noise factor *Cavity* is the tool cavity the plastic cartridge bodies were molded in.

Open *ultrasonic welding 2*. Run the model script, using a Log transformation for *Leak Rate*. Prune the model as needed, run again.

- b) Go to the *Prediction Profiler*. The target for mean *Depth* is 0.20, with a tolerance of  $\pm 0.05$ . The lowest (best) possible value for mean *Leak Rate* is 0. We require mean *Leak Rate* to be no larger than 0.10. Modify the desirability functions for *Depth* and *Leak Rate* accordingly. Save the desirabilities (red triangle on *Prediction Profiler*).
- c) Use *Maximize Desirability* to find the optimal factor settings. Have we achieved our objectives?

## Exercise 24.2 (cont'd)

414

- d) Save your script, close and save the data table.

## Exercise 24.3

415

- a) Open *electron microscope*. Run the *Fit Model* script, but this time go to the *Model Dialog*. Include all 4 response variables, apply Log transformations to all of them, then run the model again. In reality, you should remove all terms that have  $P > 0.15$  for all responses. Consider that a homework assignment. For now, just let it be.
- b) Go to the *Prediction Profiler*. We want to minimize all 4 responses. Use the same desirability functions for all 4 responses: High = 2, Middle = 1, Low = 0. Save the desirabilities (red triangle on *Prediction Profiler*).
- c) Run *Maximize Desirability* to find the optimal factor settings. Give the predicted mean values for all responses. Have we achieved all of our objectives?
- d) Save your script, close and save the data table.

## Notes

416

## 25 Screening Experiments

417

Optimization	Screening
Smaller number of factors	Larger number of factors
Single and interactive effects	Single effects only
Quantitative factors have 3 levels	All factors have 2 levels (usually)
Identify the best factor levels	Identify the best factors

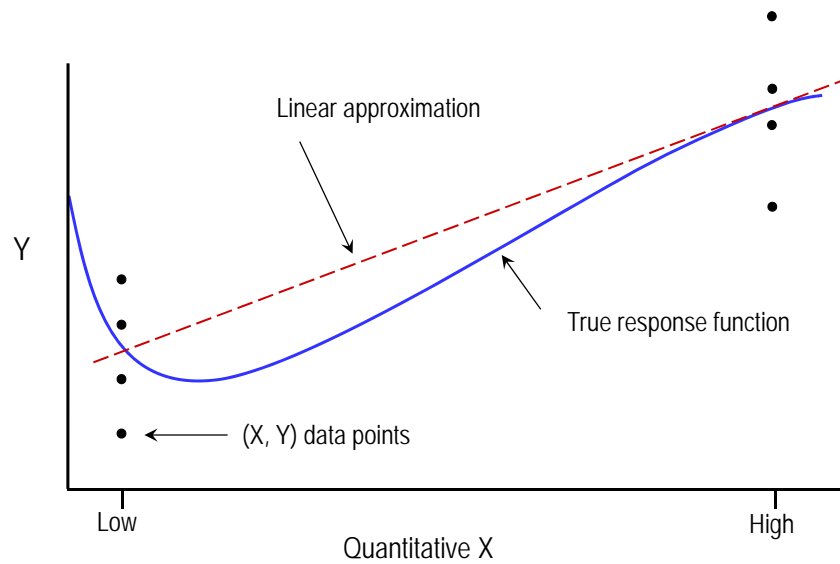
### Notes

418

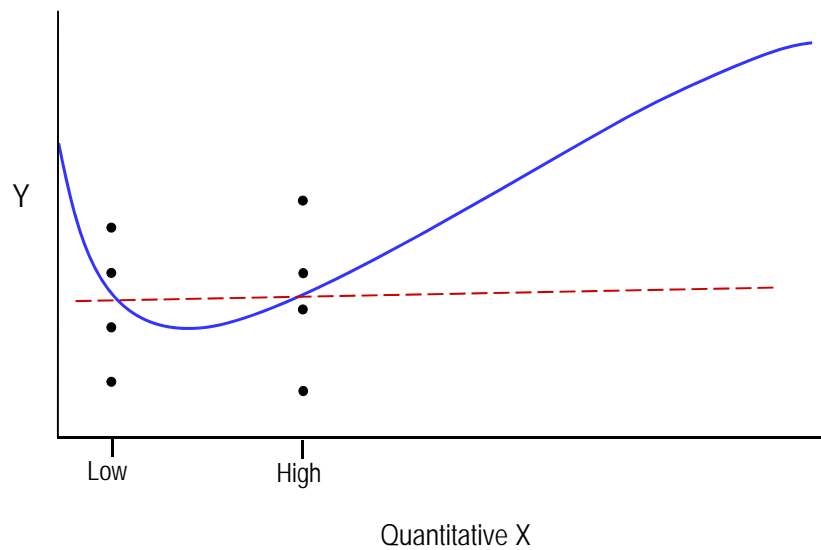
Screening experiments involve a relatively large number of factors, usually all at two levels. The objective of a screening experiment is to identify a smaller set of influential factors for further experimentation. We don't need a screening experiment if we already know what the key factors are from past experience or knowledge of the process.

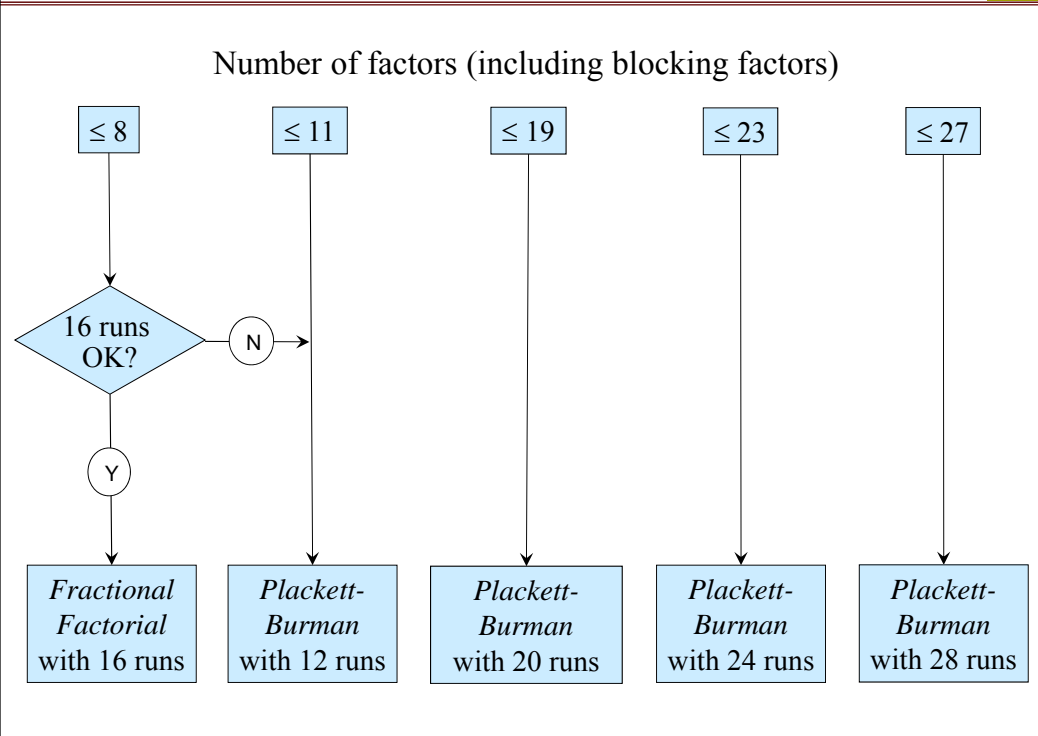
Screening experiments usually employ linear models with no interaction or quadratic terms. This is done to allow relatively small sample sizes. We don't expect such models to give us good characterizations, but they are usually adequate for identifying the "big hitters."

*Use the entire feasible operating range in a first experiment*



- Low and high levels of X are too close together
- We don't get a true picture of the X-Y relationship





The general strategy for factor screening is to use the smallest design possible, subject to the guidelines given above. To this end, we use main effects models, even though there are significant interaction and quadratic effects in most processes. We use the main effect estimates from a screening experiment to rank the factors in importance. These estimates are biased, because interaction and quadratic terms are (deliberately) left out of the model.

The designs recommended above work well in practice because the biases are distributed evenly among the factors. This makes it relatively safe to rank the factors by comparing the estimates. These remarkable designs were discovered by British statisticians Plackett and Burman during World War II.

The next four slides show how to create screening design matrices in JMP, using the guidelines given above. The path is *DOE* → *Screening Design*.

## Guidelines for screening (cont'd)

423

Up to 8 factors in 16 runs

Up to 11 factors in 12 runs

DOE- Screening Design

**Screening Design**

**Responses**

**Factors**

Screening Design  
8 Factors

Choose a Design

Number Of Runs	Block Size	Design Type	Resolution - what is estimable
12		Plackett-Burman	3 - Main Effects Only
16	8	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
16	4	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
32		Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
32	16	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
32	8	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
32	4	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64		Fractional Factorial	5 - All 2-factor interactions
64	32	Fractional Factorial	5 - All 2-factor interactions
64	16	Fractional Factorial	5 - All 2-factor interactions
64	8	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	4	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128		Fractional Factorial	5+ - All 2-factor interactions
128	64	Fractional Factorial	5+ - All 2-factor interactions
128	32	Fractional Factorial	5+ - All 2-factor interactions
128	16	Fractional Factorial	5+ - All 2-factor interactions
128	8	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	4	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	2	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions

optional item

Continue

Back

DOE- Screening Design

**Screening Design**

**Responses**

**Factors**

Screening Design  
11 Factors

Choose a Design

Number Of Runs	Block Size	Design Type	Resolution - what is estimable
12		Plackett-Burman	3 - Main Effects Only
16		Fractional Factorial	3 - Main Effects Only
16	8	Fractional Factorial	3 - Main Effects Only
16	4	Fractional Factorial	3 - Main Effects Only
20		Plackett-Burman	3 - Main Effects Only
24		Plackett-Burman Folded	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
32		Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
32	16	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
32	8	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
32	4	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64		Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	32	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	16	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	8	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	4	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128		Fractional Factorial	5 - All 2-factor interactions
128	64	Fractional Factorial	5 - All 2-factor interactions
128	32	Fractional Factorial	5 - All 2-factor interactions
128	16	Fractional Factorial	5 - All 2-factor interactions
128	8	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	4	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions

optional item

Continue

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## Guidelines for screening (cont'd)

424

Up to 19 factors in 20 runs

Up to 23 factors in 24 runs

DOE- Screening Design

**Screening Design**

**Responses**

**Factors**

Screening Design  
19 Factors

Choose a Design

Number Of Runs	Block Size	Design Type	Resolution - what is estimable
20		Plackett-Burman	3 - Main Effects Only
24		Plackett-Burman	3 - Main Effects Only
32		Fractional Factorial	3 - Main Effects Only
32	16	Fractional Factorial	3 - Main Effects Only
32	8	Fractional Factorial	3 - Main Effects Only
32	4	Fractional Factorial	3 - Main Effects Only
64		Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	32	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	16	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	8	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	4	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128		Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	64	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	32	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	16	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	8	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	4	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions

optional item

Continue

Back

DOE- Screening Design

**Screening Design**

**Responses**

**Factors**

Screening Design  
23 Factors

Choose a Design

Number Of Runs	Block Size	Design Type	Resolution - what is estimable
24		Plackett-Burman	3 - Main Effects Only
28		Plackett-Burman	3 - Main Effects Only
32		Fractional Factorial	3 - Main Effects Only
32	16	Fractional Factorial	3 - Main Effects Only
32	8	Fractional Factorial	3 - Main Effects Only
32	4	Fractional Factorial	3 - Main Effects Only
64		Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	32	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	16	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	8	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
64	4	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128		Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	64	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	32	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	16	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	8	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions
128	4	Fractional Factorial	4 - Some 2-factor interactions

optional item

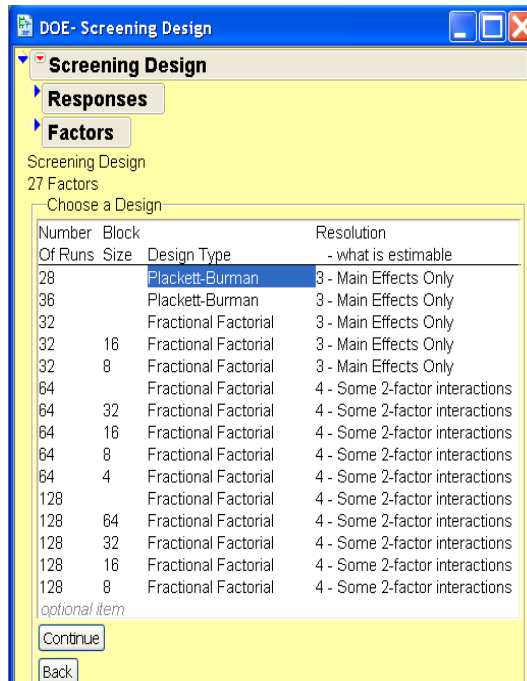
Continue

Back

## Guidelines for screening (cont'd)

425

Up to 27 factors in 28 runs

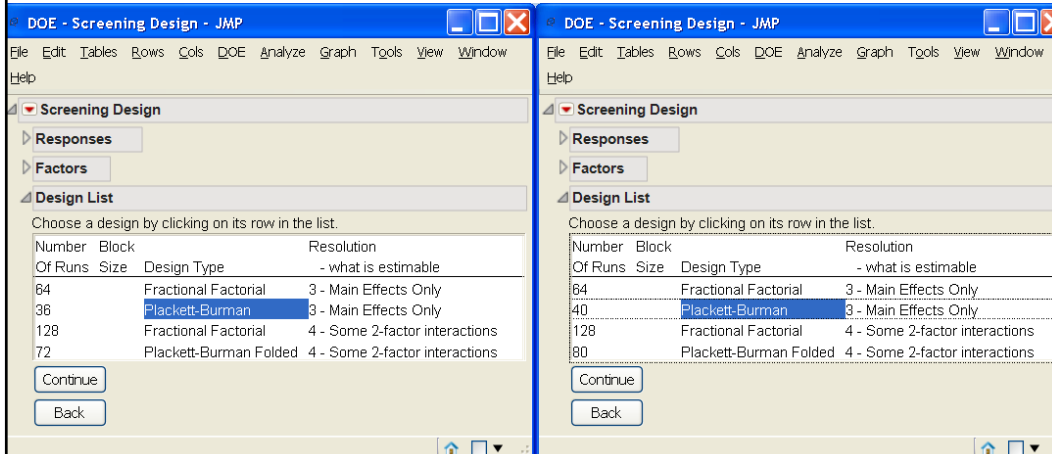


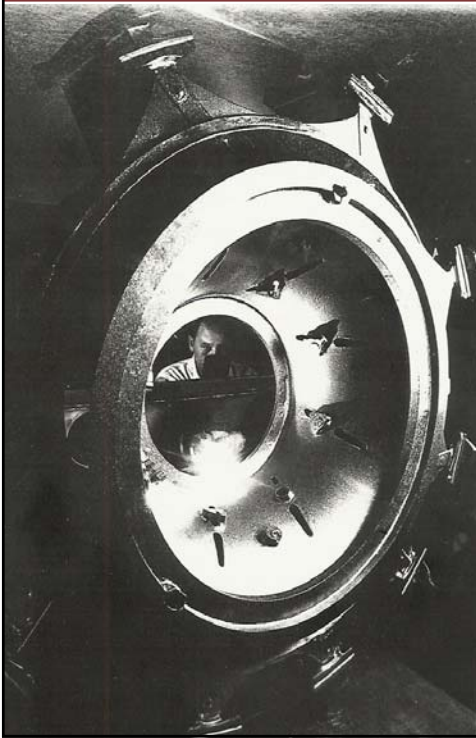
## Guidelines for screening (cont'd)

426

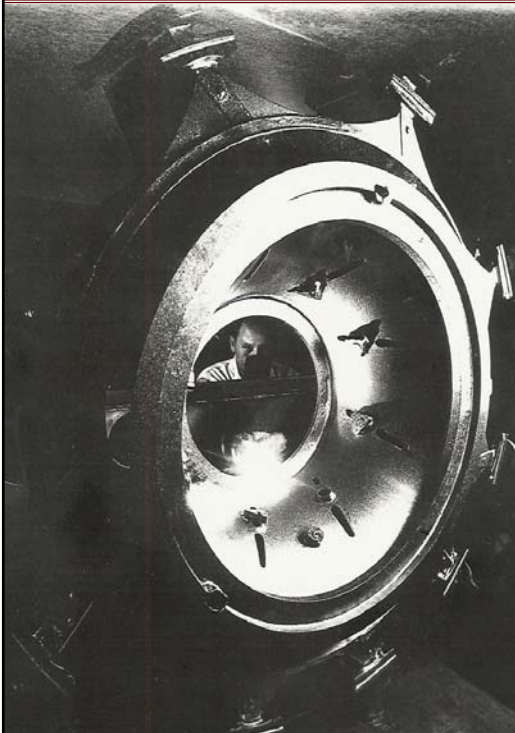
Up to 35 factors in 36 runs

Up to 39 factors in 40 runs





- Titanium castings → strong & light
- Ti develops surface oxidation during the cooling phase
- Large Ti castings were failing the customer O<sub>2</sub> requirement
- Analysis of file cabinet data yielded no significant correlations



**Black Belt**

"We should brainstorm factors for a DOE."

**Plant manager**

"We can't experiment with such an expensive part!"

**Ti metallurgist**

"The problem doesn't replicate on smaller parts."

**Part engineer**

"What have got to lose? It's been weeks since we shipped any of these!"

## Factors and levels

429

<i>Factors</i>		<i>Levels</i>	
<u>Shell makeup</u>			
	Slurry	1	2
	Dips	18	14
<u>Shell bake</u>			
	Time	48	6
	Temp	2050	1950
<u>Alloy</u>			
	Quality	Low \$	High \$
	Status	New	Revert_
<u>Cooling</u>			
	Shield	SS	Mild
	Fan speed	2400	3200

## Notes

430

Here is the list that emerges from the brainstorming session. The first factor *Slurry* is really a noise variable. One batch of shell material is made up each week, and there isn't be enough material from a single batch for the whole experiment.

The other factors are a combination of X variables in the current process and improvement ideas for the future process.

## Design matrix

431

- 8 factors
- Plant manager agreed to 16 castings
- For screening experiments, it doesn't matter whether factors are entered as quantitative or categorical
- Calling them all categorical allows entry of text for the levels.

→ DOE → Screening Design → Responses → Response Name → O2 → Goal → Minimize

→ Factors → 2-Level Categorical → 8 → Add → enter factor names and values → Continue

→ Design List → Number of Runs → 16 → Design Type → Fractional Factorial → Continue → Make Table

**Screening Design**

**Responses**

Add Response  N Responses...

Response Name	Goal	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	Importance
O2	Minimize			

**Factors**

Add  Continuous

Add  2-Level Categorical

Add  3-Level Categorical

Name	Role	Values
SLURRY	Categorical	1 2
DIPS	Categorical	18 14
TIME	Categorical	48 6
TEMP	Categorical	2050 1950
QUALITY	Categorical	Low \$ High \$
STATUS	Categorical	New Revert
SHIELD	Categorical	SS Mild
FAN SPEED	Categorical	2400 3200

Screening Design

Specify Factors

Add a Continuous or Categorical factor by clicking its button. Double click on a factor name or level to edit it.

## Design matrix

432

Fractional Factorial										
Design: Fractional Factorial										
Model										
Pattern	SLURRY	DIPS	TIME	TEMP	QUALITY	STATUS	SHIELD	FAN SPEED		
1	1	14	48	2050	High \$	New	Mild	3200		
2	2	14	48	2050	High \$	Revert	SS	2400		
3	1	14	6	1950	High \$	New	SS	2400		
4	1	18	6	2050	High \$	Revert	SS	3200		
5	2	14	48	1950	Low \$	New	Mild	2400		
6	2	18	6	2050	High \$	New	Mild	2400		
7	1	18	6	1950	Low \$	New	Mild	3200		
8	1	14	6	2050	Low \$	Revert	Mild	2400		
9	2	14	6	2050	Low \$	New	SS	3200		
10	2	18	6	1950	Low \$	Revert	SS	2400		
11	1	18	48	1950	High \$	Revert	Mild	2400		
12	1	14	48	1950	Low \$	Revert	SS	3200		
13	2	18	48	1950	High \$	New	SS	3200		
14	1	18	48	2050	Low \$	New	SS	2400		
15	2	18	48	2050	Low \$	Revert	Mild	3200		
16	2	14	6	1950	High \$	Revert	Mild	3200		

- Factor combinations in coded form (FYI only)
- Perfect balance: every factor is (+) 8 times and (−) 8 times
- For every pair of factors, each +/- combination appears 4 times

Two months (and many sleepless nights) later...

433

## *LSSV2 data sets \ Ti casting alpha case*

**Ti casting alpha case - JMP**

File Edit Tables Rows Cols DOE Analyze Graph Tools View Window Help

▼ Ti casting alph... Design Custom Design

Model

	SLURRY	DIPS	TIME	TEMP	QUALITY	STATUS	SHIELD	FAN	O2
1	1	14	48	2050	Low \$	New	SS	2400	91
2	1	14	48	2050	High \$	Revert	Mild	3200	191
3	1	14	6	1950	Low \$	Revert	Mild	2400	90
4	1	14	6	1950	High \$	New	SS	3200	76
5	1	18	48	1950	Low \$	New	Mild	3200	132
6	1	18	48	1950	High \$	Revert	SS	2400	184
7	1	18	6	2050	High \$	New	Mild	2400	144
8	1	18	6	2050	Low \$	Revert	SS	3200	197
9	2	14	48	1950	Low \$	Revert	SS	3200	128
10	2	14	48	1950	High \$	New	Mild	2400	174
11	2	14	6	2050	High \$	Revert	SS	2400	166
12	2	14	6	2050	Low \$	New	Mild	3200	255
13	2	18	48	2050	Low \$	Revert	Mild	2400	186
14	2	18	48	2050	High \$	New	SS	3200	318
15	2	18	6	1950	High \$	Revert	Mild	3200	111
16	2	18	6	1950	Low \$	New	SS	2400	213

Columns (9/0)

- SLURRY \*
- DIPS \*
- TIME \*
- TEMP \*
- QUALITY \*
- STATUS \*
- SHIELD \*
- FAN \*
- O2 \*

## The model dialog

434

**Model Specification**

Select Columns

- SLURRY
- DIPS
- TIME
- TEMP
- QUALITY
- STATUS
- SHIELD
- FAN
- O2

Pick Role Variables

Y: O2 (optional)

Weight: optional numeric

Freq: optional numeric

By: optional

Personality: Standard Least Squares

Emphasis: Minimal Report

Help Recall ☐ Keep dialog open Remove

Run

Construct Model Effects

Add Cross Nest Macros

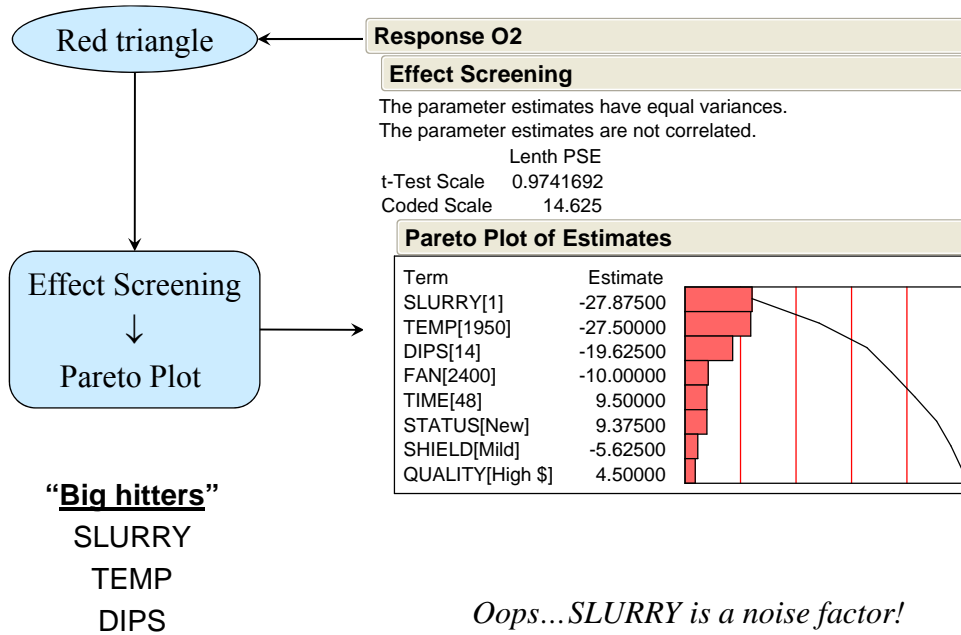
Degree: 2

Attributes: ☒ Transform: ☒

☐ No Intercept

SLURRY  
DIPS  
TIME  
TEMP  
QUALITY  
STATUS  
SHIELD  
FAN

- Can't analyze interactive or quadratic effects in a screening experiment
- Just click on Run



To interpret screening experiments, we use the *Effects Screening* analysis element as shown above. It gives a Pareto chart showing the relative magnitude of the factor effects. The idea is to use the factors with the largest effects in a subsequent optimization experiment.

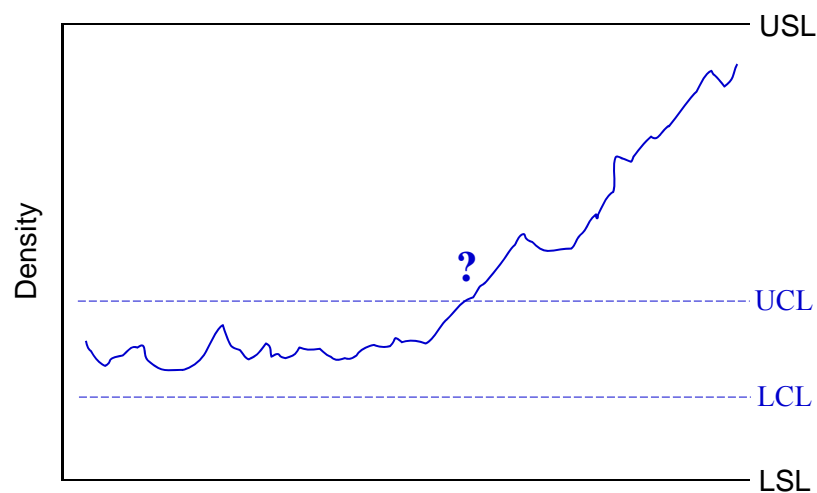
The P-values from a screening experiment are not to be trusted. The interactive and quadratic effects left out of the model artificially increase the noise in the analysis. This biases the signal-to-noise ratios downward, so factors appear less significant than they really are.

The three largest effects in the example are SLURRY, TEMP and DIPS. The result for SLURRY was perplexing. There was no doubt that the castings made from shells made from Slurry 1 looked a lot better than those from Slurry 2, but the shell making operators said there were no differences in how the slurries were made up.

- Do a screening experiment in the shell-making area
- Include TEMP, DIPS and the important shell-making variables in an optimization experiment

- They changed TEMP to 1950 and DIPS to 14 (easy)
- The problem immediately went away
- 13 of the 16 DOE castings were good to ship as is
- Only 1 eventually scrapped
- Worst-case annual cost avoidance: \$20.8M
- No immediate follow-up

- Investigation of the slurry effect eventually lead to the root cause of the problem
  - The density of the ceramic powder used to make the shell had increased over time, resulting in heavier shells
  - The increase had been noted, but no action was taken because the densities were still within spec limits
  - At the time, shell weights were not monitored
- Why no significant correlations in the “file cabinet” data?
  - The  $O_2$  data in the engineering database was final rather than first pass



- The data was trying to tell us something
- Disaster could have been averted

## Exercise 25.1

441

- (a) Apply the screening experiment guidelines to create a screening design matrix for the example shown on the slide below. Ask the instructor to review it before you proceed.
- (b) Open *extrusion 0.jmp*. Did these experimenters follow the guidelines?
- (c) Based on the results for STRENGTH and DUCTILITY, find the best set of 4 factors for a subsequent optimization experiment.

## Exercise 25.1 (cont'd)

442

<i>Factors</i>		<i>Feasible ranges</i>
<u>Polymer</u>		
	Smoother	0.0 to 0.5
	Filler	2.0 to 4.0
	Viscosity	60 to 80
	Moisture	0.1 to 0.25
<u>Process</u>		
	Zone 1 temp	260 to 320
	Zone 2 temp	260 to 320
	Zone 3 temp	260 to 320
	Zone 4 temp	260 to 320
	Rate	100 to 200
	RPM	150 to 300

Responses are *strength* and *ductility* of the extrudate

## 26 Simple Regression with Pass/fail Y

443

- a) Raw data — each row represents one part or transaction
- b) Tabulated data — each row represents multiple parts or transactions

## Raw data

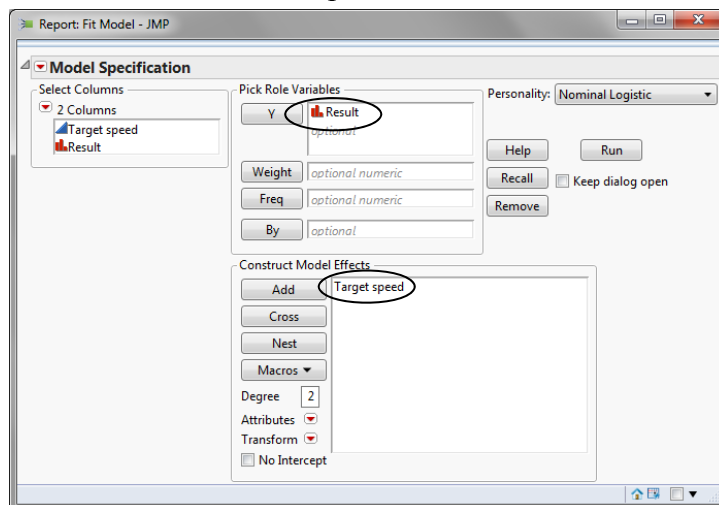
444

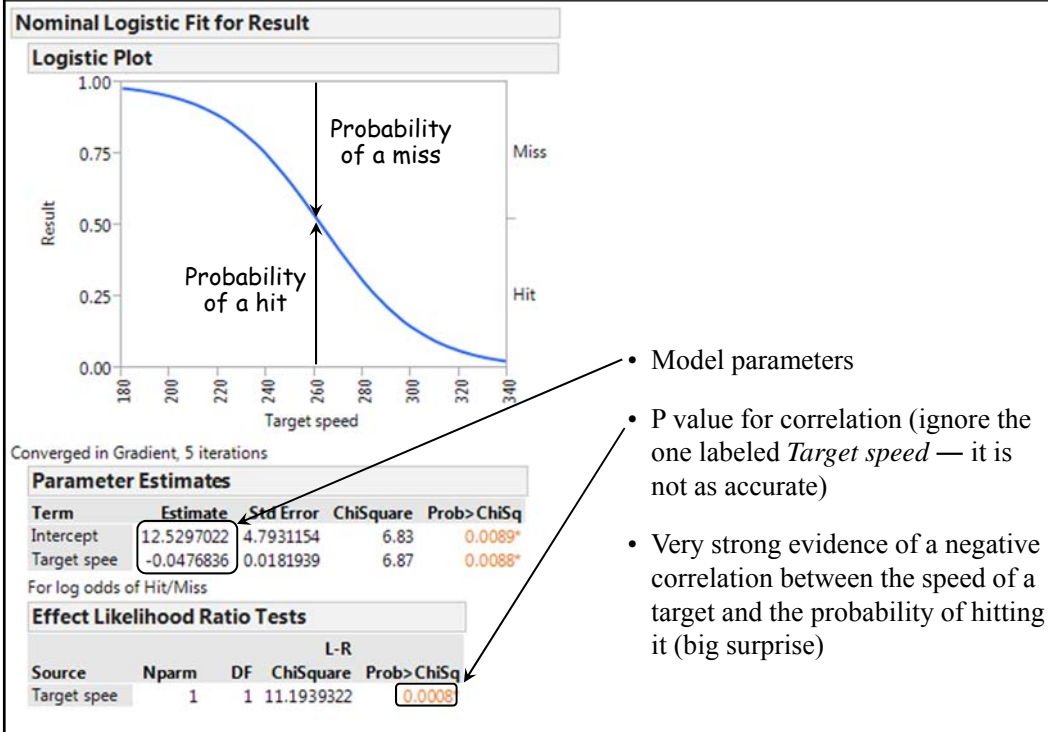
	25/0	210 Cols	Target speed	Result
1			200	Hit
2			205	Hit
3			210	Hit
4			215	Hit
5			220	Hit
6			225	Miss
7			230	Hit
8			235	Hit
9			240	Miss
10			245	Hit
11			250	Hit
12			255	Hit
13			260	Hit
14			265	Miss
15			270	Miss
16			275	Hit
17			280	Miss
18			285	Miss
19			290	Miss
20			295	Miss
21			300	Hit
22			305	Miss
23			310	Miss
24			315	Miss
25			320	Miss

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ target practice* (in JMP)

Fit Model

Set up as shown

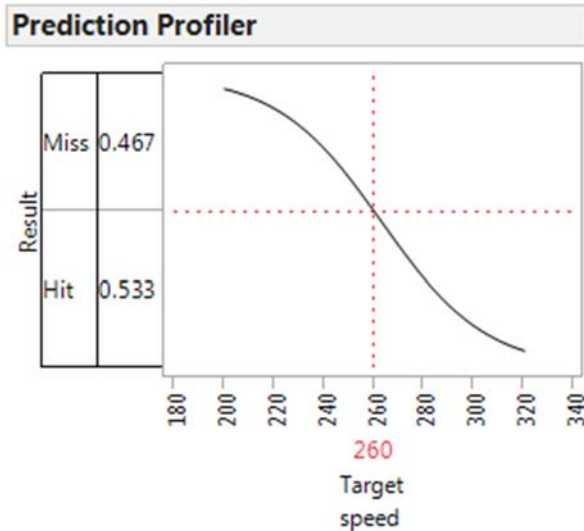




- The Y variable here is “Hit” or “Miss”
- The plotted curve gives the probability of hitting a target as a function of its speed

$$\text{Prob}(\text{Hit}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-12.53 + 0.048(\text{Target speed}))}$$

- One minus the curve gives the probability of missing the target as a function of its speed
- These model equations are nonlinear, and bounded between 0 and 1
- If a straight line model were used, it would produce ridiculous extrapolations (probabilities larger than 1 or less than 0)



Calculates the hit/miss probabilities for any given speed

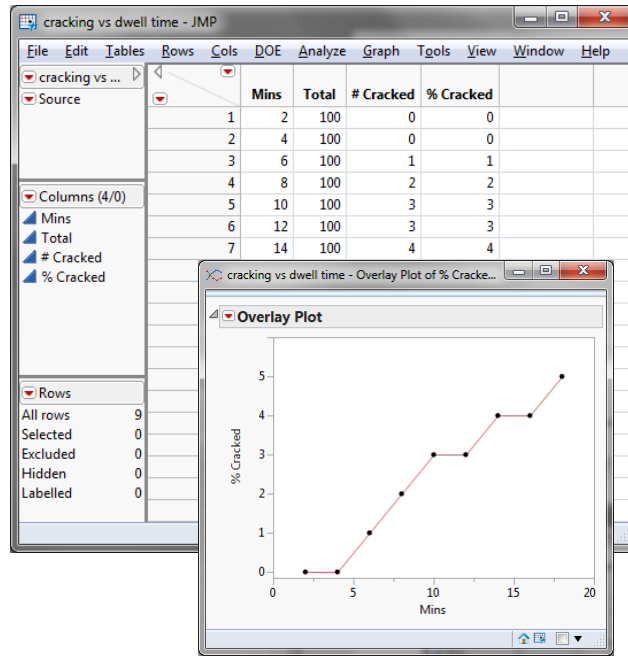
## Exercise 26.1

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ quotation process.jmp*.

- Go to *Column Properties* for PO, select *Value Ordering* → *Reverse* → OK.
- Fit *PO* by *TAT*. Give and interpret the P value for TAT.
- Use the profiler to find the PO hit rates for 3 day turnarounds and 15 day turnarounds.
- Save your script, close and save the data table.

Open *LSSV2 data sets \ cracking vs dwell time* (in JMP)

1. Make a plot of % Cracked by Mins
2. Rename # Cracked as Yes
3. Create a new column called No defined as  $Total - Yes$  (Column Properties → Formula)
4. Tables → Stack
3. Use Yes and No as the Stack Columns
4. Change Label to Cracked, Data to Freq
5. Save as *cracking vs dwell time stacked*



Mins	Total	% Cracked	Cracked	Freq
1	2	100	0 Yes	0
2	2	100	0 No	100
3	4	100	0 Yes	0
4	4	100	0 No	100
5	6	100	1 Yes	1
6	6	100	1 No	99
7	8	100	2 Yes	2
8	8	100	2 No	98
9	10	100	3 Yes	3
10	10	100	3 No	97
11	12	100	3 Yes	3
12	12	100	3 No	97
13	14	100	4 Yes	4
14	14	100	4 No	96
15	16	100	4 Yes	4
16	16	100	4 No	96
17	18	100	5 Yes	5
18	18	100	5 No	95

The **Total** and **% Cracked** columns are no longer relevant — you may delete them if you wish

Go to *Column Properties* for *Cracked*

↓  
Value Ordering

↓  
Reverse

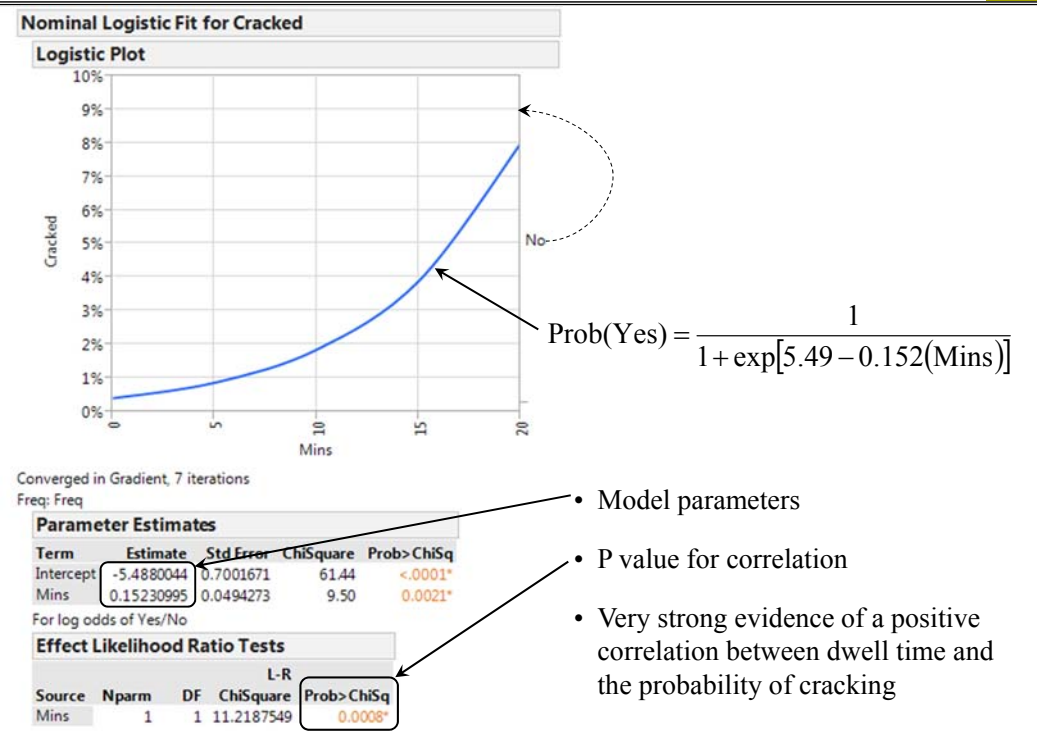
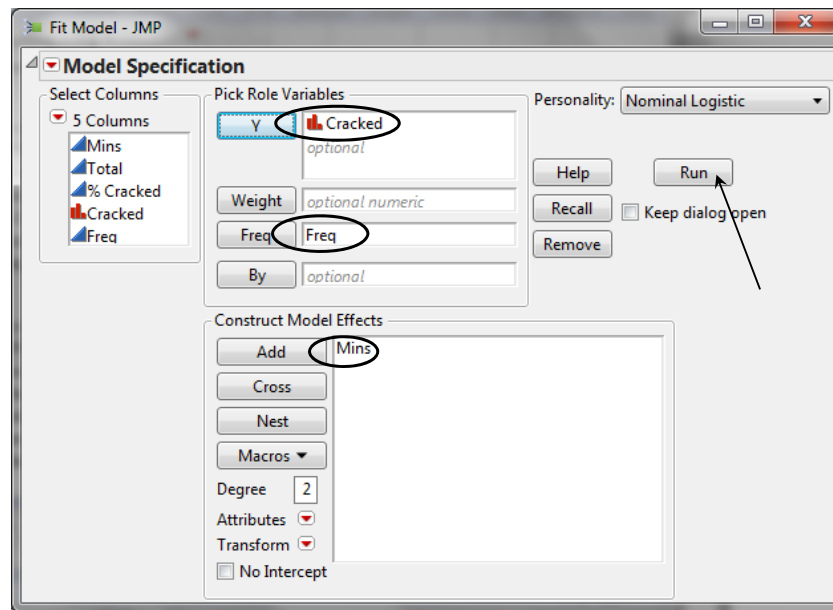
↓  
OK

↓  
Analyze

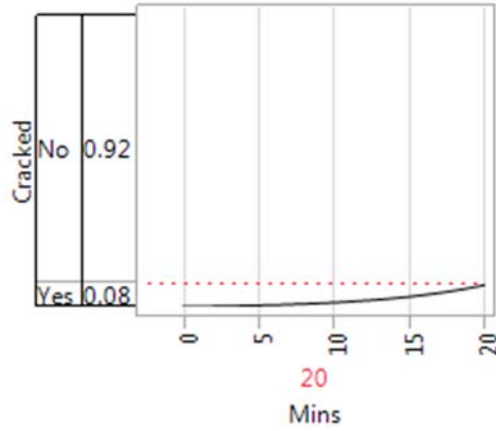
↓  
Fit Model

↓  
See next slide

↓  
Set as shown



**Prediction Profiler**



Dwell time (mins)	Probability of cracking
0	0.4%
5	0.9%
10	1.9%
15	3.9%
20	8.0%

## 27 Multiple Regression with Pass/fail Y

455

- Project to reduce clogged nozzles in print heads
- Comparison of four types of adhesive and two print head designs
- Each lot = 60 print cartridges
- “Pass” = no customer detectable print defects
- Open *LSSV2 data sets \ clogging pass fail*

	5/0 Cols	32/0	Lot	Adhesive	Print head	Result	Freq
1			1	A4	D2	Fail	2
2			1	A4	D2	Pass	58
3			2	A4	D1	Fail	1
4			2	A4	D1	Pass	59
5			3	A2	D2	Fail	13
6			3	A2	D2	Pass	47
7			4	A1	D2	Fail	11
8			4	A1	D2	Pass	49
9			5	A3	D2	Fail	4
10			5	A3	D2	Pass	56
11			6	A4	D1	Fail	5
12			6	A4	D1	Pass	55
13			7	A1	D2	Fail	8
14			7	A1	D2	Pass	52
15			8	A2	D1	Fail	3
16			8	A2	D1	Pass	57
17			9	A3	D2	Fail	1
18			9	A3	D2	Pass	59
19			10	A2	D2	Fail	13
20			10	A2	D2	Pass	47
21			11	A2	D1	Fail	1
22			11	A2	D1	Pass	59
23			12	A1	D1	Fail	1
24			12	A1	D1	Pass	59
25			13	A3	D1	Fail	7

## Example (cont'd)

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Analyze → Fit Model

**Fit Model**

**Model Specification**

Select Columns: Lot, Adhesive, Print head, Result, Freq

Pick Role Variables:

- Y: Result
- Weight: optional numeric
- Freq: Freq
- By: optional

Personality: Nominal Logistic

Buttons: Help, Run Model, Recall, Remove

**Construct Model Effects**

Buttons: Add, Cross, Nest, Macros

Construct Model Effects list: Adhesive, Print head, Adhesive\*Print head

Degree: 2

Attributes: ☒ Attributes

Transform: ☒ Transform

☐ No Intercept

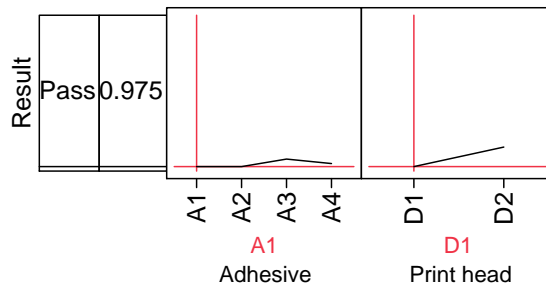
## Nominal Logistic Fit for Result

Freq: Freq

## Effect Likelihood Ratio Tests

Source	Nparm	DF	L-R	
			ChiSquare	Prob>ChiSq
Adhesive	3	3	3.01536018	0.3893
Print head	1	1	7.68556625	0.0056*
Adhesive*Print head	3	3	19.7623238	0.0002*

## Prediction Profiler



- Reverse *Value Ordering* property for *Result* so that “Pass” probability is plotted
- Remove insignificant *Adhesive* term
- Run model again

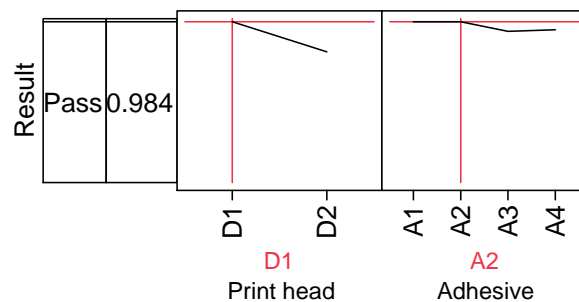
## Nominal Logistic Fit for Result

Freq: Freq

## Effect Likelihood Ratio Tests

Source	Nparm	DF	L-R	
			ChiSquare	Prob>ChiSq
Print head	1	1	16.2058108	<.0001*
Adhesive*Print head	3	3	29.2140908	<.0001*

## Prediction Profiler



- Best combination is D1 with A2
- Baseline failure rate was > 20%
- Predicted failure rate is < 2%

## Exercise 27.1

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A Black Belt wants to minimize the occurrence of bubbles and ripples in the urethane coating on truck nameplates. The X variables and ranges are:

- Badge temp: 20 to 40
- Mixing ratio: 92.6 to 94.6
- Curing temp: 30 to 55

- Open *LSSV2 data sets \ urethane coating pass-fail*
- Reverse the *Value Ordering* properties for *Result* so that the “Pass” probability will be plotted on the *Prediction Profiler*.
- Run the *Model* script provided in the left panel, run the model.
- Remove insignificant terms from the model ( $P > 0.15$ ), then re-run the model.
- Use the *Prediction Profiler* to find a factor combination that maximizes the yield.

## Exercise 27.1 (cont'd)

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- The baseline yield was about 95%. What is the predicted yield for the improved process?

## 28 Sample Size for DOE with Pass/fail Y

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Current state fraction defective :  $\phi_{\text{current}} \quad (0 < \phi_{\text{current}} < 1)$

Future state objective :  $\phi_{\text{future}} \quad (0 < \phi_{\text{future}} < \phi_{\text{current}})$

Midpoint :  $\phi_{\text{mid}} = \frac{\phi_{\text{current}} + \phi_{\text{future}}}{2}$

Batch size defining the experiment unit :  $n_0$

RMSE :  $\sqrt{\frac{\phi_{\text{mid}}(1 - \phi_{\text{mid}})}{n_0}}$

DTD :  $\phi_{\text{current}} - \phi_{\text{future}}$

Required AVP :  $\frac{1}{8} \left( \frac{\text{DTD}}{\text{RMSE}} \right)^2$

## Notes

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The Greek letter  $\phi$  (phi) is used here for the population fraction defective, not to be confused with the fraction defective in a particular sample.

When a pass-fail variable is numerically coded as 0 and 1, it has a standard deviation that depends on  $\phi$ . This means we need to do a little work on the side to get a correct input value for RMSE. The required calculation for RMSE is shown above. Once RMSE is determined, the rest of the sample size calculation is done the same way as for quantitative Y.

The assumption here is that the experiment unit consists of a batch of  $n_0$  items to be processed and tested. All items in a given batch should experience the same factor levels, and move through the process at the same time. The design team must select the batch size  $n_0$ . If  $n_0 = 1$ , then the sample size  $N$  obtained from JMP is the total number of items tested for the experiment. If  $n_0 \geq 2$ , then  $N$  is the number of rows in the design matrix, but the total number of items tested for the experiment is  $N \times n_0$ .

## Example

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Current state fraction defective : 0.054

Future state objective : 0.01

Midpoint : 0.032

Batch size defining the experiment unit : 20

$$\text{RMSE : } \sqrt{\frac{0.032(0.968)}{20}} = 0.039355$$

$$\text{DTD : } 0.054 - 0.01 = 0.044$$

$$\text{AVP : } \frac{1}{8} \left( \frac{0.044}{0.039355} \right)^2 = 0.156248$$

## Notes

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In the example shown above, the project goal is to reduce the current 5.4% failure rate to 1%. The parts in question were routinely processed in batches of 20, so 20 was a good choice for  $n_0$ .

The top slide on the next page shows the *Custom Design* “mock up” for the same factors as in the previous example, and the AVPs computed for sample sizes 51 and 52. The AVP is greater than our calculated AVP (0.156248) for  $N = 51$  and less than that for  $N = 52$ , so we will go with  $N = 52$ . The design matrix will have 52 rows, the total number of parts produced and tested will be  $52 \times 20 = 1040$ .

The sample size requirements for pass-fail Y are much greater than for continuous Y. This is an unpleasant statistical fact of life. People usually experience “sticker shock” the first few times they do sample size calculations for pass-fail Y. The only solution is to develop quantitative measurements for the quantities of interest.

## Example (cont'd)

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**Custom Design**

**Responses**

**Factors**

Add Factor  Add N Factors

Name	Role	Changes	Values
X1	Continuous	Easy	-1 1
X2	Continuous	Easy	-1 1
X3	Continuous	Easy	-1 1
X4	Categorical	Easy	L1 L2

**Define Factor Constraints**

**Model**

Main Effects

Name	Estimability
Intercept	Necessary
X1	Necessary
X2	Necessary
X3	Necessary
X4	Necessary
X1*X1	Necessary
X1*X2	Necessary
X2*X2	Necessary

**Design Generation**

☐ Group runs into random blocks of size:

**Number of Runs:**

☐ Minimum 14  
☒ Default 16  
☐ User Specified

**Design Diagnostics**

I Optimal Design	
D Efficiency	49.76708
G Efficiency	80.04761
A Efficiency	38.24845
Average Variance of Prediction	0.156398
Design Creation Time (seconds)	0.216667

**Design Diagnostics**

I Optimal Design	
D Efficiency	50.08028
G Efficiency	81.49717
A Efficiency	38.4207
Average Variance of Prediction	0.153914
Design Creation Time (seconds)	0.2

## Exercise 28.1

466

We are planning an experiment to optimize an ultrasonic welding process with 3 quantitative factors and a 4-level categorical factor. In addition to *weld depth*, a second response variable of interest is whether or not the welded part passes a leak test. We want to do a sample size calculation based on the following information:

- About 9% of welded assemblies in current production fail the leak test.
- Our goal is to reduce this to 3% leaking.
- The parts in question are routinely processed in totes of 20.

Open *LSSV2 other stuff\ sample size calculator*, go the sheet *AVP for DOE (pass-fail Y)*. Enter the information given above to get the required AVP. Use this to determine the required sample size. Find the total number of parts that need to be welded and tested for this experiment.

## 29 Reformatting Data for Pareto Analysis

467

- Data on defect types or failure reasons often is available only in tabulated form
- Each row may represent a production lot, work order, time period, machine work center, part number, . . . , or some combination thereof
- Common problem with tabulated data: wrong format for Pareto analysis

## Big example: *molding process - Pareto*

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Each row = Date, Machine, P/N, . . . ?

Total parts run = Good + Bad

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
	Date	Machine	P/N	Primary material	Primary lot #	Concentrate	Concen lot #	Regrind type	Parts palletized	Total defective
2	03-Apr-06	9	LSGV0101	CHEIL VE-1877S DrkGry	121642	NA	NA	25	120	7
3	03-Apr-06	11	LSGY0251	CHEIL VE-1877S Blk	101200	NA	NA	NA	300	17
4	03-Apr-06	15	LSGV0098	CHEIL HF1690H DrkGry	122930	NA	NA	8	372	18
5	04-Apr-06	2	LSGV0093	CHEIL VE-1877S DrkGry	121642	NA	NA	25	288	6
6	04-Apr-06	9	LSGV0101	CHEIL VE-1877S DrkGry	121642	NA	NA	25	600	2
7	04-Apr-06	11	LSGY0251	CHEIL VE-1877S Blk	101200	NA	NA	NA	690	33
8	04-Apr-06	13	LSGY0307	CHEIL HF1690H LtGry	133232	NA	NA	NA	160	8
9	04-Apr-06	15	LSGV0098	CHEIL HF1690H DrkGry	122930	NA	NA	8	624	0
10	05-Apr-06	2	LSGV0102	CHEIL VE-1877S DrkGry	121642	NA	NA	25	120	15
11	05-Apr-06	11	LSGY0251	CHEIL VE-1877S Blk	101200	NA	NA	NA	650	21
12	05-Apr-06	13	LSGY0252	CHEIL VE-1877S Blk	101200	NA	NA	NA	300	18
13	05-Apr-06	13	LSGY0307	CHEIL VE-1877S LtGry	133232	NA	NA	NA	160	0
14	05-Apr-06	14	LSGY0308	CHEIL HF1690H LtGry	133232	NA	NA	NA	240	25
15	05-Apr-06	15	LSGV0098	CHEIL HF1690H DrkGry	122930	NA	NA	8	336	17
16	06-Apr-06	2	LSGV0102	CHEIL VE-1877S DrkGry	121642	NA	NA	25	780	0
17	06-Apr-06	11	LSGY0251	CHEIL VE-1877S Blk	101200	NA	NA	NA	600	7
18	06-Apr-06	13	LSGY0252	CHEIL VE-1877S Blk	101200	NA	NA	NA	500	49
19	06-Apr-06	14	LSGV0130	CHEIL HF1690H DrkGry	122930	NA	NA	8	108	34
20	06-Apr-06	15	LSGV0099	CHEIL HF1690H DrkGry	122930	NA	NA	8	276	95
21	07-Apr-06	2	LSGV0102	CHEIL VE-1877S DrkGry	121642	NA	NA	25	300	0
22	07-Apr-06	2	LSGV0102	CHEIL VE-1877S DrkGry	121642	NA	NA	25	1020	5
23	07-Apr-06	11	LSGY0251	CHEIL VE-1877S Blk	101200	NA	NA	NA	360	6
24	07-Apr-06	13	LSGY0252	CHEIL VE-1877S Blk	387487	NA	NA	NA	200	16
25	07-Apr-06	13	LSGY0252	CHEIL VE-1877S Blk	387487	NA	NA	NA	700	7
26	07-Apr-06	14	LSGV0130	CHEIL HF1690H DrkGry	122930	NA	NA	8	72	0
27	07-Apr-06	14	LSGV0131	CHEIL HF1690H DrkGry	122930	NA	NA	8	120	17
28	07-Apr-06	15	LSGV0099	CHEIL HF1690H DrkGry	122930	NA	NA	8	180	0

## Big example (cont'd)

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Total defective × Cost per pc.

	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	AA
1	Cost per pc.	Total cost	Start-up	Sink	Flash	Weld line	Flow mark	Short shot	Warp	Burn marks	Silver	Gas marks	Color/carbon	Oil	Broken part	Scratches	Bubbles
2	\$2.89	\$20.25	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	\$5.08	\$86.43	4	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
4	\$11.10	\$199.76	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	\$2.69	\$16.12	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	\$2.89	\$5.79	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	\$5.08	\$167.77	0	4	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
8	\$3.55	\$28.44	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	\$11.10	\$0.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	\$4.13	\$62.00	6	6	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11	\$5.08	\$106.76	0	17	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
12	\$4.96	\$89.28	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	9
13	\$3.55	\$0.00															0
14	\$8.97	\$224.36															0
15	\$11.10	\$188.66	0	0	0	0	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	\$4.13	\$0.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
17	\$5.08	\$35.59	0	2	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
18	\$4.96	\$243.04	3	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	27
19	\$10.33	\$351.07	8	0	0	0	0	14	0	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0
20	\$14.19	\$1,347.62	56	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	0
21	\$4.13	\$0.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
22	\$4.13	\$20.67	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
23	\$5.08	\$30.50	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
24	\$4.96	\$79.36	0	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
25	\$4.96	\$34.72	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7
26	\$10.33	\$0.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
27	\$15.15	\$257.56	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	8	0	0	0
28	\$14.19	\$0.00	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Counts for each type of defect

## Notes

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One of the things we would want from a data set like this is a Pareto breakdown of defect types by frequency of occurrence. For this, we need to calculate the total number of defective parts for each defect type. With the format shown above, we cannot do this by means of a pivot table. As an alternative, we could calculate the totals for the columns representing the defect types. However, compared to a pivot table, this method is extremely tedious for doing anything else, such as comparing Pareto breakdowns for stratifications of the data set.

Another thing we would want from a data set like this is a Pareto breakdown of defect types by total cost. It is not impossible to do this with the format shown above, but, once again, it would be extremely tedious compared to a pivot table.

Open *molding process - small* (in JMP)

7/0 Cols 3/0 Rows	Total defective	Cost per pc.	Total cost	Start-up	Short shot	Silver	Bubbles
1	7	3	21	3	0	4	0
2	17	5	85	4	4	0	9
3	18	11	198	0	6	12	0

↑  
This is what we have

This is what we need →

4/0 Cols 12/0	Cost per pc.	Defect	Freq	Total cost
1	3	Start-up	3	9
2	3	Short shot	0	0
3	3	Silver	4	12
4	3	Bubbles	0	0
5	5	Start-up	4	20
6	5	Short shot	4	20
7	5	Silver	0	0
8	5	Bubbles	9	45
9	11	Start-up	0	0
10	11	Short shot	6	66
11	11	Silver	12	132
12	11	Bubbles	0	0

→ How do we get there?

Tables → Stack → Select the defect columns as the *Stack Columns*

Stack values from several columns into several rows in one column.

Select Columns

- ▲ Total defective
- ▲ Cost per pc.
- ▲ Total cost
- ▲ Start-up
- ▲ Short shot
- ▲ Silver
- ▲ Bubbles

☐ Multiple series stack  
☒ Stack By Row  
☐ Eliminate missing rows  
☐ Drop non-stacked columns  
☐ Keep dialog open

Stack Columns

Remove

Start-up  
Short shot  
Silver  
Bubbles  
*optional*

Output table name:

New Column Names

Stacked Data Column:

Source Label Column:

☒ Copy formula  
☒ Suppress formula evaluation

Action

OK

Cancel

Recall

Help

## Editing the columns

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5/0 Cols	Total defective	Cost per pc.	Total cost	Label	Data
12/0	1	7	3	21	Start-up
	2	7	3	21	Short shot
	3	7	3	21	Silver
	4	7	3	21	Bubbles
	5	17	5	85	Start-up
	6	17	5	85	Short shot
	7	17	5	85	Silver
	8	17	5	85	Bubbles
	9	18	11	198	Start-up
	10	18	11	198	Short shot
	11	18	11	198	Silver
	12	18	11	198	Bubbles

Total defective and Total cost are now incorrect row by row

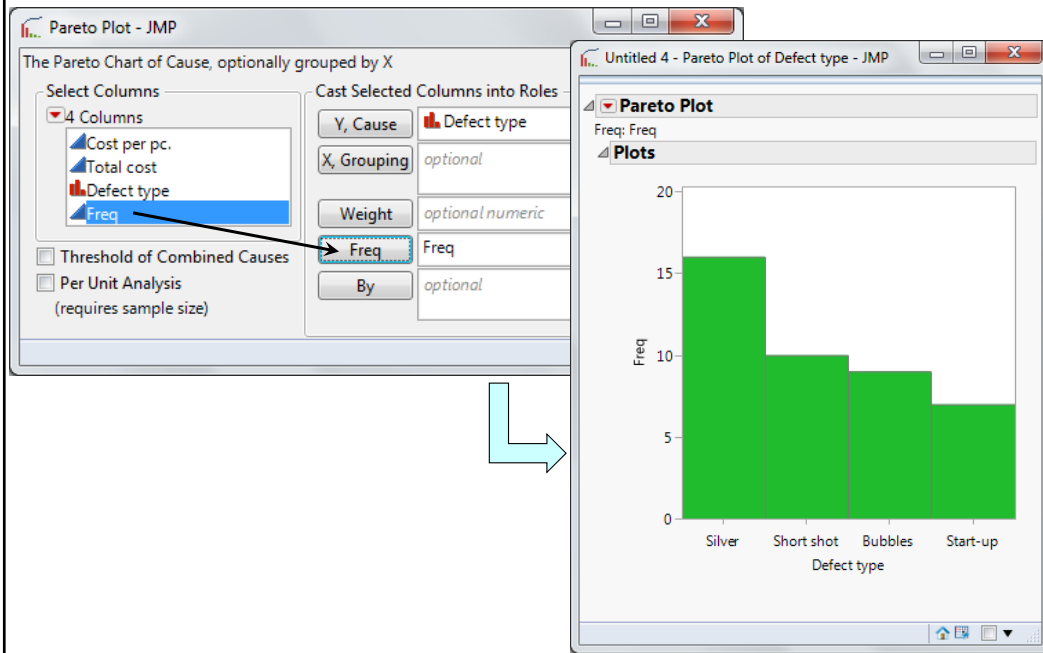
1. Right-click on *Data*
2. Select *Column Info*
3. Rename as *Freq* → OK
4. Rename *Label* as *Defect type*
5. Delete *Total defective*
6. Right-click on *Total cost*
7. Select *Formula* →  $\text{Cost per pc.} * \text{Freq}$
8. Save as *molding data small stacked.xls*

4/0 Cols	Cost per pc.	Total cost	Defect type	Freq
12/0	1	3	9	Start-up
	2	3	0	Short shot
	3	3	12	Silver
	4	3	0	Bubbles
	5	5	20	Start-up
	6	5	20	Short shot
	7	5	0	Silver
	8	5	45	Bubbles
	9	11	0	Start-up
	10	11	66	Short shot
	11	11	132	Silver
	12	11	0	Bubbles

## Pareto plot by frequency

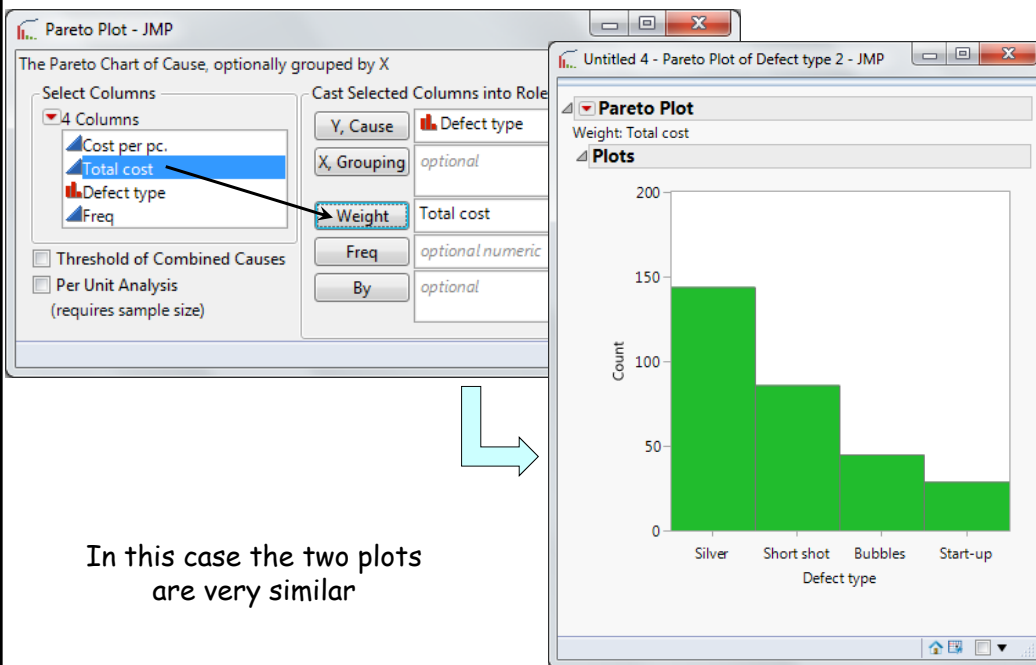
474

Analyze → Quality and Process → Pareto Plot → set up as shown → OK



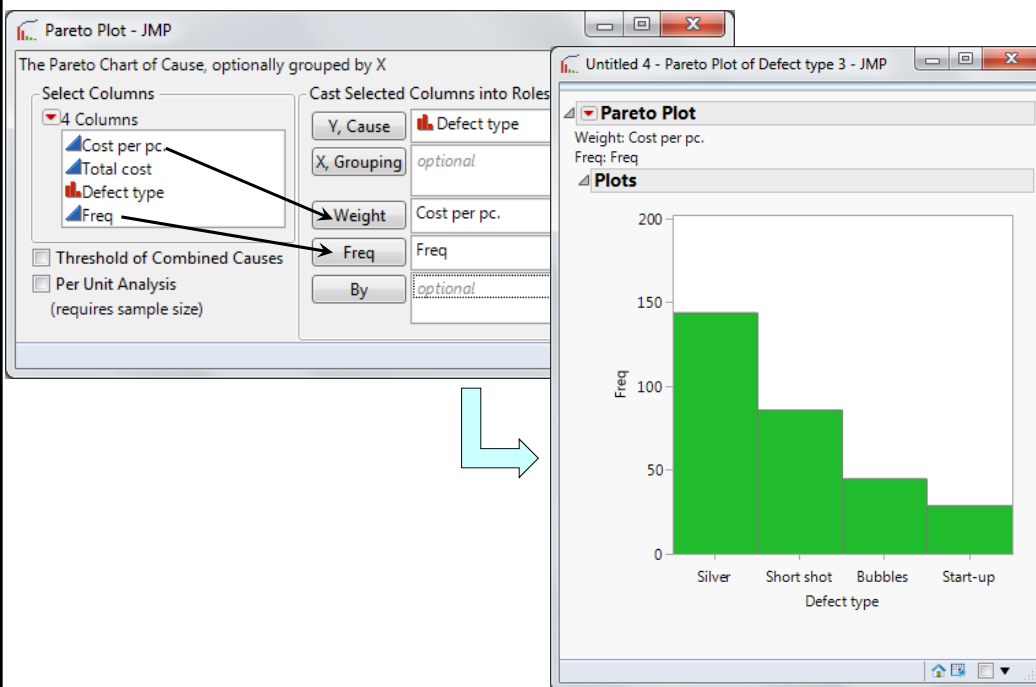
## Pareto plot by total cost

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## Cost Pareto without calculating the total cost column

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## Exercise 29.1

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Open *molding process - Pareto* (in JMP). Use the method described in this section to reformat the file for Pareto analysis. Save the reformatted file as *molding process - stacked*. Create Pareto plots of defect types by frequency of occurrence and total cost.

## Notes

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